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By J. G. Barnard, 57, Snow Hill.

1808.

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TRAVELS

THROUGH THE

SOUTHERN DEPARTMENTS

OF

FRANCE.

PERFORMED IN THE YEARS 1804 AND 1805.

BY A. L. MILLIN,

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TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

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AUTHOR's PREFACE.

IT may perhaps be supposed that this Work is entirely devoted to a description of the antiquities of the South of France, but, on perusing my first chapter, which will render a long Preface unnecessary, it will be seen that I have paid attention to every subject worthy of notice which I met with in the course of my journey.

It was my wish to enable the Reader to become acquainted, by means of this Work alone, with every object of curiosity in the fine countries through which I passed, and I have, in consequence, pointed out such things as will be worth the attention of travellers who may pass over the same ground. I have successively described all the circumstances that fell under my observation; and how various they were will be seen from the heads of the chapters. Of such as are well known I have only given brief notices, but have referred the Reader to those works in which he will find them described at length; but, on the other hand, I have given, in an elaborate manner, such as have never been described or published.

As many Readers are anxious to know the formulæ of the lapidary style, that they may understand the adulation and testimonies of gratitude of the people towards their deceased benefactors; or the affecting expressions of conjugal love, maternal tenderness,

filial piety, or friendly regret, I have copied and explained a number of fine and unpublished inscriptions, from which they cannot fail to derive much gratification; while such readers as are not partial to this kind of study, may turn over the page, and pass to subjects with which they will be pleased.

The tour which I performed was very extensive. I began my observations on setting out from Paris, and finished them on my return to that capital. I took the road to Lyons, by way of Fontainbleau, Sens, Auxerre and Avalon, where I turned aside to survey the ancient Burgundy, passing through Semur Montbard, and Dijon. Instead of returning by the ordinary way of Beaune, I went across to Cussy-la-Colonne, and Autun, and arrived at Lyons by descending the Saone.

On following the course of the Rhone, I stopped at and collected the particulars of every interesting spot: after which I visited the coast, and went to Toulon. Hyeres, Saint Tropez, Frejus, Antibes, Nice, Cimiez, Monaco, and Menton, with the description of which last-mentioned town the present portion of my work will be found to close*. The remaining half, which will shortly appear, will comprise the account of my return to Marseilles, through the mountainous towns of Upper Provence; thence to Tours and its environs, and finally to Paris, by way of Orleans and Etampes. Besides my own remarks, I have consulted the works of all the authors who have heretofore written on the subjects which came under my examination.

* The present portion of the work consists of two octavo volumes.
EDITOR.

TRAVELS

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CHAPTER I.

CAUSES OF THE JOURNEY—PREPARATIONS AND DEPARTURE—ACCOUNT OF VILLEJUIF—ITS PYRAMID, &c. JUVISY—CORBEIL—ESSONE.

THE serious studies to which I had long applied myself having nearly destroyed my health, and being extremely weak in consequence of a fit of illness with which I was afflicted, several able physicians advised me to travel to the south of Europe, with a view to effect my restoration. On consenting to their solicitations, I naturally turned my attention towards Italy, the name of which no antiquarian can pronounce without emotion, though France was always the first object of my thoughts; and knowing with regret, that well informed men visit foreign countries without being acquainted with their own, I resolved to confine my tour to the southern departments of our empire. I had already visited the northern departments when preparing my work on French monuments, and in the south I expected to find other objects of study and means of rendering myself useful. I cannot but acknowledge the superiority of many travellers who have preceded me; but these departments have experienced great changes during the course of the revolution, and their present state is little known. I therefore expected to derive both pleasure and instruction from my visit; for I consider it discreditable to a Frenchman to go to admire the Pantheon, the Coliseum, the Arches of Septimus Severus, of Trajan and Constantine, and not to have seen the square at Nimes, the Amphitheatre of that town, the Arches at Orange, at Saint Reimi and Saint Chamas, as well as many other celebrated monuments, well worth examination.

I resolved to proceed by way of Lyons, after having seen a great part of Burgandy, to travel through the ancient Provence, and

the whole of what was lately called Languedoc, to return by way of Bourdeaux and Rochelle, and to continue along the banks of the Cher and Loire, as far as Orleans. It was my intention to stop in the towns which possessed any interest with respect to literature and the arts, as well as in such places as had been the scenes of important events; to examine the ancient monuments, and those of the middle ages; to compare their present with their ancient state; to specify the alterations which they have undergone, and the means that ought to be taken to preserve them; to visit the libraries, the private and public cabinets, and to procure for the Imperial Library, by purchase and exchange, such valuable books, manuscripts, and medals as might be worthy of removal. I also wished as much as possible to procure accounts of scarce editions, and interesting manuscripts, which I might not have an opportunity of examining.

Many curious articles, which were contained in the cloisters and ancient public establishments had disappeared through the revolution, and I wished to discover what has become of them; many others, on the contrary, which had been taken from the abbeys and private collections, have been deposited in national buildings, and there remain unknown. I therefore intended to give an account of the figures or descriptions, as well as to make exact copies of the inscriptions which have been incorrectly published, but particularly of those which had not been published before. Nevertheless I did not intend to confine my enquiries to literature and the arts, but wished to visit the manufactories and charitable establishments; in short, I reckoned upon leaving scarcely any subject without investigation.

The utility of such travels as I was about to undertake, has always been acknowledged, and their contents have been perused with great interest; the literary travels of two Benedictines, Martini and Durand, are still sought after and quoted, though the principal object of those religious men was to discover ancient liturgies, and to observe the difference which prevailed in the celebration of church ceremonies, as well as to examine the manuscripts relative to the history of their order.

It is far from my wish to compare myself with those distinguished men whose names I have mentioned; but the particular attention which I have paid to the study of the antiquities and monuments of the middle age, as well as to bibliography and history, to which I am equally attached, induced me to hope that my efforts would be of some utility.

The functions which I had to fulfil at Paris, rendered it necessary to procure permission to travel, from the minister of the interior, and M. Chaptal not only granted me permission with the greatest readiness, but the plan of the journey, which I laid before

him was so satisfactory, that he charged me with a special mission, by giving me instructions entirely conformable to my project. He also added letters of recommendation, addressed to all the prefects and sub-prefects, which gave great facility to my researches.

As too much exertion would have injured my health, in its then precarious state, I was permitted to take with me an assistant, and chose M. Winckler, belonging to the Cabinet of Medals, whose talents and character are too well known to need eulogium.

I have endeavoured to make this account serve as an itinerary to all who may travel by the same road, and have therefore inserted such information as will save the time of travellers, and facilitate their enquiries; as, for want of such descriptions, whole days are lost, and many opportunities missed which might be devoted to interesting observations. In order, therefore, to travel in a way most convenient to the objects I had in view, I resolved to go post, as the stage coaches do not set off in the day time, stop but seldom, and never go out of the direct road.

We were not loaded with barometers, telescopes, and other mathematical instruments, like the learned men who accompanied Cook, La Perouse, and Captain Baudin, as such articles would have been useless and ridiculous; but it was necessary to take with us whatever might be wanting towards the objects of which we were in search; and as many of these articles were not to be procured, even in the great towns, at the times when they were most wanted, we should in vain have regretted their omission. For example, I have often found it impossible to procure local maps in the departments, and particularly those of our old provinces; I therefore took with me such as we thought would be necessary, together with all the materials for copying, drawing, casting, modelling, &c. besides a small collection of books, relative to the different sciences to which I was to pay attention; taking it for granted that I should be able in every part to meet with some particular and appropriate works and dissertations.

On Saturday the 14th of April, 1804, we left Paris. The part from which we set off is one of the most dirty and disagreeable of the city; and when foreigners enter this way, they adopt an unfavourable opinion of it, but by following these narrow and filthy streets, they are the more struck when they come in sight of the fine quays and beautiful bridges, as well as the majestic palace of the Louvre, now the focus of the arts.

Before passing the barrier, the eye rests with complacency on that fine edifice consecrated by Louis XIV. to astronomical studies, and the imagination of man assumes a degree of consequence on reflecting that, in this place his cotemporaries have, as

it were, compelled the heavens to open before them, and display their sublime secrets.

The gate at which you go out in this quarter, is one of the least singular which have been constructed by that consequential architect who presumed to deviate from the rules of art, and adopt a system of his own. Poets and artists assume the right of taking liberties; but true genius is modest without being pusillanimous; and in the arts, as well as literature, those who have attempted to depart from the severe precepts established by taste and reason, have always excited surprise, but never admiration; for they have in fact imitated nobody, and their works will never serve as models for others; they ought to be compared to those who, in ages of ignorance and barbarism, attempted to execute works, the beauties of which have been admired, but the defects attributed to the age in which they were produced. Such innovators, however, cannot be placed amongst the ranks of those great masters, who have brought the arts to perfection, and fixed their limits.

We quitted on the left the road which leads to the ancient royal castle of Choisy, as well as to a great number of charming country houses, agreeably situated on the banks of the Seine. Farther to the right is the road to Orleans, and between that and the one which we followed, runs the little river of Bièvre, which receives its name from the river of Gentilly, after passing through two villages, called the Little and Great Gentilly. But if you stray along its banks, do not proceed as far as Bicêtre, as you will then avoid the disgusting appearance of those saline waters which there mix with the rivulet. It is nevertheless asserted that it is to this mixture the manufactories of the Gobelins are indebted for the excellent colours with which their articles are dyed.

Before arriving at the first post, we passed to the right the castle of Bicêtre, which, by being situated at the extremity of the avenue, produces a fine effect. There have been constructed in the valley several locks for the aqueduct, which passes to Arcueil; and the young poplars which surround them give to each the appearance of a tomb; while the whole place may be taken as a resemblance of Elysium: but the mind, which is always ready to yield to impressions of gentle melancholy, is soon rendered sorrowful by the reflection that this Castle forms the residence of criminals; that the wretches who are detained in it, instead of amending their conduct, which led them to commit robberies and murders, impart their criminal propensities even to pupils, who scarcely ever care to come beyond its walls, unless to practise the lessons they have received. But let us pass from this residence of depravity and crime, though not without paying a tribute of

esteem to the philosophical physician, who has overcome the disgust which such a place inspires, in order to study the most afflicting of diseases; it is here, by constant attention, and a mode of treatment adapted to every sort of madness, that the learned Pinel has been able to prove that insanity is not incurable.

Before we changed horses, we could not fail to pay attention to Arcueil, which is the only spot in the environs of Paris in which any remains of Roman buildings are to be found; and here we see their remarkable manner of building by alternate layers of brick and stone, which enables us to form an idea of the excellent composition of their cement; but in order to observe the antique portion which still subsists, we must not only examine it outside by the road, but must enter the farm of Cachant, which belongs to M. de Cambry, an estimable literary character, formerly prefect of the department of Oise. The Count de Caylus has published an engraving of this portion of the ancient aqueduct; the superb modern one was built from the designs of the celebrated Jacques de Brosse, by order of Queen Mary de Medicis, for the purpose of conveying to Paris the waters of Rungy.

The first relay is at Villejuif, where the precinct terminates. Here the word *town* (*ville*) does not signify, what is meant, in the ordinary sense, a large and fortified place, but has the same acceptation as the Latin word *villa*, of which it is the translation; thus we say *Romainville*, *Bellville*, *Vill-Neuve*, *Ville d'Avré*, &c. Some people pretend to derive this name from Villa Judæa, and hence it has been concluded that *Villejuif* was an ancient residence of Jews; but it appears that the name of *Villa Judæa*, which was used in the appellations of the thirteenth century, has originated from a false opinion, which arose out of the corruption of the word *Ville Jude*, or *Ville Juliette*, being the name of a saint whose relics were revered in that spot; but the idea that the Jews, enriched by usury, had acquired nearly all the domains in this part, and that several of them were burnt here, has so far prevailed, that, in the maps and modern itineraries, this burgh is called *Ville-Juif*.

The Abbé Lebeuf says that Cæsar, finding he could not approach Lutetia, on account of the swamps at that time formed by the Bièvre, conducted his army to Melun, ascending by Ville-Juif and Essone. The learned Canon of Auxerre here commits a small error; for it was Labienus who, with four legions, at that time besieged Paris; and Cæsar was then on the banks of the Loire.

We now got out of the chaise to take a parting view of Paris, and at this spot we saw the whole extent of that capital; the *coup-d'œil* which was afforded by the immense collection of black-

looking stone buildings and irregular steeples, was singular. The most proper point for enjoying this view is between the terrace of the castle and the pyramid, which was erected here to indicate the line, through which passes the meridian. We are here at such a high elevation, as to be able to distinguish every thing; though it is pretended by some people that this road is on a level with the summit of the towers of Notre Dame.

The plain of Ville-Juif is entirely corn fields, but the environs of the village consist of vineyards and orchards. Between this village and Essone we cross a plain, which has received the name of *Longboyau*, because the trees which have been planted along the road, run in a direct line to the extent of three leagues, and make an allée, which, of course, extends farther than the eye can reach. The soil is sandy, and bad in every respect.

To the right of this road are the ruins of La Saussaie, an old abbey of Benedictines.

At the extremity of this long avenue is the village of Fromenteau, at which we changed horses. Here we went to examine the second pyramid, erected, like that at Ville-Juif, to mark the meridional line. We saw ourselves surrounded by a rich country, covered with parks and fine residences, by villages which indicate competence, animated by an abundant and variegated cultivation, bordered by the Siene, which winds to the left, and intersected by rivulets, which dispense general fertility; so that the whole affords a most interesting prospect.

At some distance from Ville-Juif, near Rungy, at which are the springs that are conducted to Paris, by the aqueduct of Arcueil we enter the department of the Seine and Oise. Shortly after we arrived at Juvisy, a place little known in history; it is only mentioned that the Dauphin, Charles VII. on proceeding to Melun, to suppress the faction of the Burgundians, was attacked here by the Duke of Burgundy, who forced him to return to Paris. But if this burgh has not been the scene of great events, it nevertheless deserves the attention of travellers, on account of the works which have been executed there to lead to the great road. Formerly carriages passed through the village of Juvisy with much danger and extreme difficulty, on account of the steepness of the ascent; still at last it was resolved to make a better road. The one upon the new plan was to pass also through Juvisy, but the Lord of the Manor refused to let it run through his park, and the great road was, in consequence, marked out at a small distance from the village, which has proved very injurious to the inhabitants. This grand work was begun in 1722: they undermined and opened the mountain, and, in order to unite the two hills, between which passes the little river of Orge, a work has been constructed which is both stupendous and

singular; it consists of two bridges, placed one above another; the first, which consists of seven arches, serves only to support the soil of the two hills; but upon it is built another bridge, which has only one arch, and over which runs the great road. This public work, worthy of the time of the Romans, was finished in 1728.

While they were cutting through the rock, they struck out a spring, which created great inconvenience, but they resolved to turn it to the embellishment of the bridge; they therefore conducted it by canals to the intended spot, where they made it produce two fine fountains, which were called the Fountains of Juvisy. These fountains are embellished by groups; one of them, by Coustou, jun. represents Time, who holds a medallion of Louis XV.; but the portrait of the monarch has been defaced; the other is composed of children, who support a globe, on which were the arms of France. These groups are badly executed. Each of the fountains is embellished with a large reservoir, and ornamented with a tablature, which contains the following inscription, but of which only the last two lines are legible:

LUDOVICUS XV.
REX CHRISTIANISSIMUS
VIAM HANC DIFFICILEM
ARDUAM AC PENE INVIAM,
SCISSIS DISSECTISQUE RUPIBUS,
EPLANATO COLLE,
PONTE ET AGGERIBUS CONSTRUCTIS,
PLANAM ROTABILEM ET AMŒNAM
FIERI CURAVIT.
ANNO M. DCC. XXVIII.

These fountains are now unfortunately dried up, but the spring might be easily found again, and their re-establishment would be a great public benefit; for no traveller formerly passed them without stopping to drink and watering his horse.

The little river Orge, which runs beneath this bridge, takes its rise near Dourdan; passes to Arpajon, after receiving the Ivette at Savigny; and then divides into several branches near Juvisy, before it flows into the Seine above Petit-Mons. Gregory of Tours speaks of one of the bridges which were built over this river, in a way to induce the idea that, in the year 582, it separated the kingdom of Chilperic, in which Paris was comprised, from that of Gontran, the capital of which was Orleans.

After crossing the bridge of Fontaines, we enjoyed on both sides the most agreeable views, as we beheld Senard, Draveil, Champrosais, and Viri, a commune, the excellent cheeses of which are so much praised by epicures; and Petit-bourg, a place which was formerly so much esteemed by the illustrious Princess, Madame

de Bourbon. The traveller should here stop a little, to contemplate the results of industry, the beauties of nature, and the instability of fortune, before he proceeds to Ris, a burgh which has borne witness to many revolutionary outrages.

Before reaching Essone, we observe to the left the flour-magazine of Corbeil the principal town of that small country, which was formerly called the Hurepois, I could not resist the temptation of visiting a place the monuments of which I had published; but alas! I could not find any one which I had described: the unfortunate daughter of Woldemar, King of Denmark, Queen Ingelburge, humiliated, despised, and turned off by her husband, Philip Augustus, was expelled from the commandery of St. John, which she had founded, and her statue no longer exists. The figure of the brave Count Aymon is still at St. Spire: but the tomb of this fortunate conqueror of a monster dreaded throughout the country, is despoiled of its ornaments; the seat of the officiating ecclesiastic, as well as the stalls, whose ornaments consisted of such ludicrous figures, have been broken, the rich shrine of the saint has been melted down; and the church of St. Guenault has become a public library and a prison. In January 1802 the bridge was thrown down by the overflowing of the river, and it can now only be crossed in boats; but a very ingenious mode has been established for the conveyance of letters. The bridge is now repairing; and the granaries constructed by M. Viel are still extant.

Several learned men have endeavoured to account for the origin of the name of Corbeil, which they deduce from the Latin *Corboilum*, and they think that the town must have been founded by Corvinus or Corbulo; but others assert that it took its name from a flight of ravens, which appeared in its environs; while others, without troubling themselves about the Latin origin, pretend that the plan on which it was built, was of the form of a raven.

This small town has been the birth-place of many distinguished men of letters, some of whom have added its name to their own. Amongst the most eminent were Gilles de Corbeil, physician to Philip Augustus, and one of the first French Authors who wrote on Natural History; he also composed a poem of six thousand verses, on the virtues of different medicines; but it appears that Corbeil was not the birth place of this medical poet; for he was born in England, and did not even retire to the town in question, but was made a Benedictine in the Abbey of Corbie.

This town is advantageously situated at the confluence of the Seine and the Juine; the one is navigable, and the other serves to turn mills and manufacturing machinery. Corbeil, which was formerly dependant on Essone, has profited by the advantage of its position on the Seine, and risen to some consequence;

while Essone, which, in the times of the first race of Kings, was flourishing, has now sunk to insignificance. This burgh is situated on a small river of the same name; and the Merovingian kings had a palace there as well as a mint.

The country is planted with vines, and the little river Essone contributes greatly to its fertility; it takes its rise in the departments of Loiret, near Antrin, where it is called the Juine; it runs through a part of the town of Etampes, where it is called the river of Etampes, and its confluence is at Essone. In 1753, there was an iron foundry here, but at present the two principal establishments are a powder and a paper mill; we visited the former, and paid great attention to it. The process for the preparation of this composition, invented for the destruction of the human race, is so well known as to require no description; I shall therefore only observe that there is in this manufactory a machine which, under the old government, was used for making what was called the king's powder; it consists of two enormous stones placed together, which, in their circular motion, grind the substance that has already undergone every other preparation except being granulated, it thus becomes more compact and dense, occupies a small space, and a charge of it is much stronger than the same proportion of any other kind. This particular preparation, however, was not executed without danger; for it often happened that the continual motion of the wheels heated the substance so as to make it explode; and these accidents were so frequent, that the practice was abandoned, and the machine is now used only for the pulverising of sulphur.

This manufactory is remarkable on account of its singular situation. The place in which the different substances are prepared for making the powder, is entirely blackened by the dust of the charcoal, and seems to resemble those descriptions which poets give of Hell; we crossed a stream by walking along a plank, and this seems like the passage of the Styx, into the Elysian Fields; for, on the other side, we entered a charming meadow, shaded by fine trees, and intersected by several branches of a small river, which serves to turn the machinery.

The powder-mills are about the distance of a musket-shot from the road which leads to Fontainebleau. On crossing the road, we observed, about a quarter of a mile down the river, a little hamlet called Moulin-Gallant; this spot has been celebrated, ever since the fifteenth century, for its paper-mills, which are described in an Account of the Provost Court, published in 1450. These mills were destroyed by the army of the Prince de Condé, but they were soon rebuilt; and the paper, since they have belonged to M. Louis Didot, has acquired a great reputation; for it is here that the famous vellum sheets are manu-

factured, on which the superb editions of the Brothers Didot are printed. M. Louis Didot pretends that he has discovered the art of making paper, without the aid of workmen, without fire, of an indefinite length, and of the width of six feet. The machines for these operations are now building, and if their success should answer the expectations of their ingenious inventor, the art of paper-making will have experienced a complete revolution.

Several attempts have been made to render the Juine and the Essone navigable; for ancient documents prove that they were so in 1480, and that the navigation lasted for nearly two centuries; but, about the year 1676, it was discontinued, on account of the number of tolls exacted by the landlords, through whose grounds the river passed. The attempts to restore the navigation are, however, at present abandoned, though the greatest advantages might be derived from it, by the contiguity of the streams to the forest of Orleans, from which wood and corn might be conveyed for the supply of Paris.

On proceeding towards Fontainebleau, we observed on the left the castle of St. Assise, the park belonging to which extends to the banks of the Seine; it was for a long time inhabited by the Duke of Orleans, and his spouse, Madame de Montesson; at which period it was the seat of benevolence, the asylum of the arts, and the centre of every thing which could delight the mind. Farther to the right is the celebrated castle of Villeroy, near which is a species of earth used for porcelaine, and which has long been employed in a manufactory dependant upon the castle. There grows in the environs a fine variety of the *Cnicus oleraceus*, L. the lowermost leaves of which are perfect.

We changed horses at Ponthieri, and a little farther is Monlignon, at which the department of the Seine and Marne commences. The next stage is at Chailly, and we arrived at Fontainebleau after crossing a part of the forest.

CHAPTER II.

FONTAINEBLEAU—MILITARY SCHOOL—COURT OF THE WHITE HORSE—LIBRARY—CASTLE—ARMOURY OF MONALDESCHI—GALLERY OF FRANCIS I.—FRESCO PAINTINGS OF PRIMATICE AND ROSSO—THE CHAPEL, &c. &c.

WE reached Fontainebleau in the evening of the day we set out; the entrance to it is striking, and has something of a Royal appearance. We alighted at the inn called the Gallery (*la Galere*),

a place worthy of its name; as the chambers were filled with old portraits of Kings and Princesses, and the wood which formed the alcoves was gilt, though the mouldings, which were dropping off, ill accorded with such finery. At the bed-side we found a small set of steps, entirely covered with scarlet velvet, as if it were necessary to use them on going to rest, though the bed was not higher than the second step. A little farther was a chair, decorated with the same stuff, and intended for a purpose which daily reminds the most powerful and absolute monarchs that they are only men. This burlesque magnificence was to us a melancholy subject of reflection. The furniture of this palace, which Francis I. made the focus of the arts, which was the delight of Henry IV., and which was used at so many regal festivals, now ornament a miserable inn, as if to remind the traveller that there is no such thing as permanent happiness.

The next day we were introduced to General Bellavense, Governor of the Special Military School. This General unites to noble and polished manners the severity necessary for conducting such an establishment; he derived much glory from the retreat of the army of the Rhine and Moselle, in 1796, when he exhibited several traits of bravery, and received a severe wound. The excellent order preserved in the school, and the appearance of content amongst the pupils, notwithstanding the rigid discipline to which they are subjected, prove the paternal justice of this officer's conduct.

He conducted us to this seminary, and we found the school to be in a building which entirely surrounds what is called the Court of the White Horse: a name which is derived from a model in plaster, of the horse of Marcus Aurelius, which Catherine de Medicis had caused to be erected there in 1626. This vast court, which is eighty toises long by fifty-eight wide, is appropriated for a play-ground for the pupils; at the time of my visit, their number was two hundred, and they had twenty professors.

This fine square, and the buildings which surround it, were designed and erected in 1529, by Sebastian Serlio, an able architect of Bologna, whom Francis I. first brought into notice, and who planned most of the fine buildings at Fontainebleau, which were erected in the reign of that Monarch.

At one end of the court, a ballustrade, which projects beyond the building, leads to the apartments of the castle; it consists of two flights of steps, was built in 1634, and has always been admired for the beauty of its architecture; nevertheless its turnings are aukward and tasteless, insomuch that it produces a disagreeable effect from the court. These flights of steps lead to two galleries, communicating to the wings, in which reside the professors and the pupils. In front is the door by which we enter to the

other buildings of the castle, some parts of which are reserved for the collections of the special school. There is a library which contains about eight thousand volumes, mostly relating to history or the art of war, but it contains no bibliographical rarities. The ceilings and wainscots of this room are gilt, and over the chimney-piece is a figure of Henry IV. on horseback. The marble ornaments are of a remarkable execution, and over the doors are two portraits, said to be those of Mary de Medicis and Gabrielle d'Estrées. I had no opportunity of comparing the latter with the pictures that have been given of Gabriel, but I have some difficulty in believing that any one would have dared to bring together, in the chamber of Henry IV. the portrait of his Queen and that of his Mistress.

This chamber also contains some handsome bas-reliefs in the Florentine style of the 16th century, and of the best kind; they were brought here from other apartments which had fallen to decay. They might be very useful to perfect the pupils in the art of drawing, and are worthy of the attention of amateurs.

On the marble of the chimney-piece are deposited a sword, and a coat of mail, which, it is pretended, belonged to the Marquis Monaldeschi; but the fact is, that the sword of one of the three butchers who executed the cruel sentence of Christina, broke on the breast of the unfortunate equerry; and a coat of mail was found on him which weighed nine or ten pounds. This sword and coat of mail were preserved in the cabinet of antiquities and curiosities of the Mathurines, whence, since the revolution, they were removed to the cabinet of the military school in question.

Those who are acquainted with history may remember, that the Queen caused this unfortunate favourite to be killed in the Gallery of the Stags. This inhuman and shocking action has acquired a more odious character, in the accounts which have been given of it: it is even pretended that Christina was present at the execution, and that she took an active part in it; but the most authentic account of this event is that which was published by Father Lebel, the Trinitarian, who confessed the Marquis, and is only to be found in a scarce work printed at Boulogne in 1664, and reprinted by Laplace, in his collection entitled "*Recueil de Pieces interressantes et peu connues.*" Tome IV. page 139.

According to this account the Queen had convincing proofs of the treason of the Marquis, against which he could not justify himself. It was afterwards discussed, whether she had a right to condemn her own subject for a crime committed against her in a foreign country. But the real question is much more important; it is whether an offended sovereign can do justice to himself, as

it has always been considered the most horrid sort of tyranny to deliver the person whom he accuses to executioners, or rather to assassins, without having been condemned by a tribunal which has examined into his crime. There is some reason to believe that the crime of this Marquis was only an affair of gallantry; it appears that he gave to a rival the letters he received from the Queen, and that in those which he wrote to his mistress he treated his sovereign very disrespectfully. Still the action of Christina was one of the greatest inhumanity; and it was with justice that Cardinal Mazarin ordered her to quit France.

Next to the Library is a cabinet of Natural History; but it contains nothing important. In the middle of the hall is a plan, in relief, of a besieged town, for the purpose of giving the pupils an idea of the mode of attack and defence.

A gate communicates with the old castle, the remains of which consist of five buildings in ruins, but connected together by galleries; the entrance to them is by the gallery of Francis I. which reminds the spectator of a brave Prince, who was a friend to literature, and whose reign was the happy epoch of the restoration of the arts in France. Fontainebleau was a royal residence as early as the twelfth century, and Louis VII. is supposed to have been its founder. Philip Augustus liked this residence, and St. Louis, who was in danger of dying here of a serious illness, was much pleased with the place, and called it *his deserts*. At this castle Philip the Fair was born and died; Charles V. established the library in it, which afterwards became so celebrated under the name of the *King's Library*, and is now called *la Bibliothèque Impériale*. Francis I. was however most attached to this place, and under the reign of this Prince it acquired all its importance.

Nothing appears more simple than the origin of the name of Fontainebleau; the waters which seem to spring out in every direction, have suggested the idea that its etymology is relative to the abundance of the springs, and that the word literally means *fontaine belle eau*, a name which the writers subsequent to Francis I. sometimes gave it. It is in consequence of this opinion that the name of this royal residence has been latinised in several works, by the equivalent words *Fons bellaqueus, Fons belleius, Fons bellæ aquæ, &c.* An ancient tradition relates that, during a chase in the forest, one of the French Kings lost a favourite dog, which was called *Bleau* or *Bliau*, but which was afterwards found, at a fine spring, not before known, and which was, in consequence, called *la Fontaine de Bleau*. This anecdote is conformable to the manners of the times, agrees with the nature of the place, and has all the appearance of truth. Francis I. caused this spring to be covered in, and to be ornamented with a kind of grotto of stones, in which was painted, in *fresco*, the

story of its discovery. The water at present merely runs into a round bason, in the midst of the garden of fir trees.

We next entered the gallery which bears the name of Francis I. The bust of this Prince still remains at the extremity of it, and is fortunately in a tolerable state of preservation. This gallery is also called the *little gallery*, to distinguish it from the great one, as it is long and narrow; it is likewise called *the Gallery of the Reformed*, because in it the Protestants presented a petition to Francis I.; or rather because Louis XIV. after the peace of the Pyrenees, in 1664, reformed or discharged several officers. Francis I. sent to Italy for several distinguished artists, whom he employed to build and embellish Fontainebleau, and Rosso, as early as the year 1530, had painted several pictures for it. In 1531 this Prince sent for Primaticio, and gave him the superintendance of all the embellishments. Primaticio and Rosso executed a considerable number of fresco paintings, which are not now to be found, and have probably been destroyed; in fact nothing remains but the gallery itself that is worthy of preservation as a monument of the history of the arts, and as a general model of that kind of building which is now absolutely lost. It is a singular mixture of paintings and ornaments of stucco, composed of flowers, fruits, children, men, and animals, executed by that celebrated sculptor, Paul Ponce, whose genius and invention were admirable; for there is no one part which resembles another. Most of the pictures, which are of the kind called cartoons, are miniatures of exquisite taste; and the large paintings which decorate the gallery are fourteen in number; they are eight feet high by eighteen long, but they do not form a complete history, as the subjects have no connection with each other; they mostly relate to mythology.

The chapel belonging to this old palace is loaded with gilding and paintings, and is in a very ruinous state; but its pavement, which is formed of marble of various colours, like that of the cupola of the Invalids, is in a good state of preservation.

The theatre is also worthy of mention; there only remains in it a tier of boxes; it is built upon a bad plan, and the performance could not have been seen from any other part than that which now remains. It is equally filled with gilding as the chapel, which affords an idea of the richness of the ornaments. On entering this theatre, I remembered the names of many works, which, after having been received here with the greatest applause, experienced a reception exactly the reverse on the stages at Paris. I could mention the names of several, but I wish not to disturb the ashes of the dead.

Without leaving Fontainebleau one may trace all the epochs of the arts in France, from the time of their restoration. The valuable remains of Primaticio and Rosso first remind us of that

brilliant period. On entering the chambers of Mary de Medicis and Henry IV. we observe the changes that were then effected, and we no longer admire the multiplicity of paintings, and the astonishing variety of ornaments; for the taste of the age of Francis is perceived to have given way to the luxury of gilding; though both the ceilings and wainscots are decorated with considerable taste, or at least they make a very magnificent appearance.

The good Henry, who was both a hunter and a warrior, took much delight in Fontainebleau, and bestowed great pains on its embellishments; but a bad taste is evident in the concert-room, which was embellished in the reign of Louis XV. under the direction of Madame de Pompadour; the parts which were constructed for the late Queen, are a kind of boudoirs, and very agreeable little apartments, in a much better style than those of the reign of Louis XV.

From the apartments is seen a large reservoir, in the middle of which is a small building of marble, called the Council Chamber of Henry III.; it is said that Catharine de Medicis, and afterwards Cardinal Richelieu held in it their secret consultations: But Princes have no necessity for keeping their deliberations so secret. This building supplanted a pavilion which Francis I. had caused to be erected for the amusement of fishing. This Prince and his successor had collected in the castle a great number of valuable pictures, and of antique statues, or copies made after them, so that it really became a school of the fine arts, and many artists from every country, came hither to study the productions which it contained. At present these valuables are united in the Napoleon Museum and the garden of the Thuilleries; the fine bronze statues which now ornament the great terrace have nearly all been taken from Fontainebleau.

The central school, which was held in one wing of the castle, was, at the time of my visit, on the point of closing, conformably to the decree which ordained the suppression of the schools. There is a manufactory of porcelain at Fontainebleau, but we could not see it because it was Sunday.

CHAPTER III.

DEPARTURE FROM FONTAINEBLEAU—ACCOUNT OF THE FOREST—ITS ROCKS, AND THE NATURE OF THE STONE —DESCRIPTION OF SEVERAL VILLAGES BETWEEN FONTAINEBLEAU AND SENS—THE ESPLANADE AT SENS—REMARKS ON THE SENONES—AGEDINCUM—THE COLLEGE—THE LIBRARY AND THE MUSEUM—ACCOUNT OF SOME CURIOUS MANUSCRIPTS, MISSALS, &C.

ON the 15th of April, at noon, we left Fontainebleau; the vast buildings of this splendid residence of royalty attest its former magnificence; the great number of beggars who frequent these roads, present a contrast of luxury and misery which unfortunately is too often met with. We again passed in front of the obelisk, and proceeded through a part of the fine forest, which contains upwards of thirty-four thousand acres, and which is remarkable for the singularity of its prospects. On one side are black and shapeless rocks, surrounded with morasses, and on the other is strata of freestone, irregularly superposed; or barren sands at one part, while another contains lands covered with the finest woods, such as oaks, beech, and firs, whose lofty summits expand in the air, or the trunks of which are lying on the ground, while the whole affords the most picturesque views. Often, on leaving a fertile valley, we found ourselves on an uninhabited desert; but, on the other hand, several parts of the forest contain walks lined with trees, that extend farther than the eye can reach.

In the works of Messrs. Vaillant and Thuillieu, as well as in all the publications which describe the botany of the environs of Paris, are indicated those plants which are peculiar to the forest of Fontainebleau. It is also known that there is found here the *quartziferous carbonated lime, in acute rhomboids*, which is known by the vulgar name of *crystallised freestone of Fontainebleau*, because this substance is peculiar to the forest or its environs. These groups of crystals have a fine appearance, and sometimes form masses which are upwards of an hundred weight each.

The rocks of Fontainebleau are mostly composed of that species of *agglutinated arenaceous quartz* which is called paving-stone, because it is with this stone, when cut in squares, that the

streets of our towns are paved in so convenient and solid a manner; it is also called the freestone of Fontainebleau.

Much has been said for a long time concerning the vipers of Fontainebleau, and it is certain that a singular kind of reptile is very numerous in this district; it nearly resembles the common viper, or *Coluber verus* of Linnæus; but it differs in some of its characteristics. The Prefect of the Department has caused these reptiles to be sought for, and many have been destroyed.

At the end of the park is the village of Avon, the parish church of which is very ancient, and which contained the tomb of Monaldeschi; it was said to possess the heart of Philip the Fair, though it is known that he was buried at Poissy. A large and fertile kitchen garden has been formed here out of the ground belonging to the forests.

After travelling about a league from this spot, we left the wood entirely, and, at the distance of another league, entered Moret, the gates of which are flanked with towers. This town is of a square form, and the principal street divides it in the middle. It is a very ancient place, a council having been held in it as early as the year 850.

On leaving this town, we perceived, on the right, the fosses and ruins of its ancient castle, which was of a circular form. After crossing the rivulets of Loing and Orleans, which latter is called the canal of Montargis, we came to an obelisk of red marble, which is well built, and called *the Queen's Obelisk*; after which we arrived at Fossart, which forms the limits of the ancient country of the Parisii, and then we entered on the territory of the ancient *Senones*. The road on the left leads to the old *Condate*, since called Monasteriolum, and, in French, Montereau, with the surname of Faut-Yonne, because this river here empties itself into the Seine. This place is celebrated on account of the assassination of the Duke of Burgundy; and, before the revolution, the sword of this Prince was exhibited in the church, where it was suspended upon two iron hooks.

On pursuing the road to Sens, we had on the left the verdant banks of the Yonne, while to the right was the castle of La Brosse, and shortly afterwards we came to the stone which points out the limits of the department of the Seine and Marne. We then entered that of the Yonne, and, after passing through two or three villages of no importance, arrived at Pont-sur-Yonne. This is a town of considerable extent; at the end of it is a very long bridge, after crossing which we had the Yonne on the right; the meadows which lie along its banks are extremely picturesque.

After passing through Villenavotte, we left to the right the ancient Abbey of St. Colombe and arrived at Sens. We entered this town on a Sunday, and went immediately to the Promenade

which is a large open space planted with trees, and extending along the old walls; at one end were two orchestras, and the company were dancing with the same liveliness as at the *fêtes champêtres* of Paris; near the gate of St. Antoine is a reservoir filled with stagnant water in which linen is washed, but which seems rather devoted to the goddess Cloacina than to any useful purpose. It is astonishing that the people use this filthy water, as the Yonne, which runs through the town, would furnish them with an abundance of a pure kind for every domestic purpose; while this digusting hole injures the appearance of the fine walk at the end of which it is placed.

The Senones who inhabited the country which we entered on leaving Moret, were a people celebrated in ancient Gaul, and who occupied a very extensive territory. They were that warlike race, who, after having defeated the consul Fabius, penetrated even into Rome, which they plundered. It appears, however, that they had other Gallic nations for their allies in this expedition: but they were themselves the principals. In the time of Cæsar they formed an alliance with the Parisii, at which period they were much respected: their limits were to the eastward of the Seine; to the west was the country of the Carnutes, and to the south a small horde who were under the protection of the Ædui: they possessed that part of Champagne which the Seine borders to the south; while the territory of the Tricassini (Troyes) was probably dependant on them.

Hence it is evident that the town of Sens derives its name from that of the Senones, of which it is only an abbreviation; though in the time of Cæsar it was called Agedincum. In the sixth year of his wars with the Gauls, Cæsar had his winter quarters there with six legions; and in the following year Labienus left several legions here with his baggage, which he withdrew after his conquest of Camulogenus.

Like several other towns of Gaul, Agedincum changed its name for that of the nation of which it was the capital: it was called Senones by Ammianus Marcellinus. Decentius, brother of Magnentius, was in this town when he heard of the defeat of his brother, and in consequence strangled himself.

Sens, which according to every account, was a place of great antiquity, still contains monuments which attest its ancient importance; for a knowledge of which I was much indebted to M. Tarbé, an eminent bookseller in the town. He conducted us to the College, which is in the late convent of the Celestines; this establishment contains 120 scholars, who are educated by M. Roger, formerly grand-vicar of the Archbishoprick of Toulouse. This gentlemen showed us the library, which contains about 12,000 volumes, but it has no old editions, though it is well sup-

plied with commentators on the classics. It is contained in a fine square building; but the inscription, *Bibliotheca maxima*, which is placed over the door, is very inappropriate, as there are many private libraries which are much more extensive. The museum is also in the college, and is simply a square hall, having only a ground floor, the walls of which are covered with paintings, but none of which are of importance.

M. Roger conducted me to a press, which contained several subjects of Natural History, though of no importance. There were also several interesting missals of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

Amongst this generally uninteresting collection we however distinguished an extremely curious article: It was the celebrated Dyptic, which contained the Office of the Fools and the hymns of the Ass: I have made it the subject of a very extensive dissertation in my collection of unpublished monuments, and I shall here give a description of it.

It is known that the name of Dyptics was given to the tablets of ivory which the consuls presented on the day of their installation, and which afterwards passed to the use of the church, where they were used by the bishops, for inscribing their names or noteing down their prayers. That of Sens is one of the few which are ornamented with subjects of mythology, and this particularity renders it more interesting: Its leaves are stretched on pannels of oak, and the whole is contained in a frame of silver.

The subject of the first leaf appears to be the Triumph of Bacchus. This god is assisting at the vintage, at which his benevolence and powers are manifest, and the divinities of the sea are witnessing the sight; to the left is a young man naked, bearing on his head a basket filled with grapes, in his right hand is a similar basket, and he is looking towards the tub in which he is about to deposit their contents. Near this figure a villager appears, conducting a chariot drawn by sheep, and likewise filled with grapes; the conductor is armed with a large club, in the shape of a mace, and he points with his right hand to the tub in which the grapes are to be deposited. Above this figure are seen two men in the same dress as that of the conductor of the car, which is a simple tunic with the sleeves tucked up, and which was the clothing of the slaves who were employed in the labours of the field; they are arranging the grapes in two large osier baskets, and seem to be preparing them for the large pressing-tub, which is contiguous. To the left appear three naked men pressing the grapes; the first of whom has horns, which characterise him as one of the followers of Bacchus: The attitude of each is different, and all three are in an active position, treading on the grapes; some other monuments represent Fauns in the

same employment. The juice of the grapé, which is expressed by this tripudation, issues from the tub through a lion's mouth, and falls into a large round vase. The artist has supposed that the wine, as soon as it issues from the pressing tub, is put into barrels, and to represent this essential part of the vintage, he has placed near the vase a small square carriage with two wheels, on which is a cask like those used in France for containing wine: The different positions of the cars indicate the commencement and termination of the vintage; that which brings the grapes is advancing towards the pressing-tub, while that which conveys the cask is receding from it. In the middle of this picture are the figures of Bacchus with his joyful troop, assisting at the ceremony. The first figure is a satyr with horns on his head, who is sounding a conch to announce the arrival of the gods of Nyssa. He holds the bridle of a horse in a capering attitude, on the back of which is a man dressed in a sort of chlamys; the satyr and the horsemen appear to be first in the procession, and are directing their course towards the pressing-tub.

It is not easy to guess who is the horseman, but he probably represents the master of the villa at which the vintage is made, and for whom the dyptic has been sculptured. The car of Bacchus is next seen with two centaurs, male and female, who support with their hands an elegantly formed cantharus: they raise it above their heads and look back at the god whom they are drawing. The carriage is in the form of a war-chariot, and the god is standing in it; he has not that appearance of youth and effeminacy which is generally given to Bacchus, but on the contrary is rather old, and has a beard; and it is known that Bacchus the conqueror of India is thus represented, and bears the name of the Indian Bacchus: he is crowned with vine leaves, and the staff on which he rests is topt with the same leaves, and not with the pine-apple as is usual; the mantle of the god rests on his left arm. Near him is Pan, who carries in his hand a stick, the branches of which have been cut off, and which serves him instead of a pedum; he appears to be supporting his master, of whom he is the friend and general. On the lowermost part of the picture are divinities of the sea, who represent an old Triton between two Nereids, all of whom have their heads decorated with lobsters' claws, which on several monuments indicate their wearers to be sea gods: the artist has given each of them a belt of acanthus leaves, at the part which separates the human body from the fish: their tails twine round in noble and elegant forms.

The Triton holds in his hands a marine monster, which has the head of a dog; one of the Nereids points with her right hand towards the car of Bacchus, and holds a conch in her left; the other holds an oar in her right hand; and beneath the group are

fish sporting in the water. The most remarkable circumstance in the picture is, that the car of Bacchus seems to be coming out of the water, and the Centaurs who draw it do not appear to have gained the land. As Bacchus is seldom seen in water, it is necessary to say something on this peculiarity.

There is no doubt that Bacchus was considered, in ancient mythology, as well as Apollo, as an emblem of the sun; a fact which has been established by several authors. I am of opinion that Bacchus is considered here as the sun: he seems to be rising out of the sea, and by his mild heat facilitates the vintage. The marine divinities are observing him coming out of the water, and his vivifying presence animates the progress of the vintagers.

It is supposed that this piece represents Bacchus, supported by Pan, conducted by the Centaurs, and preceded by a Satyr, as coming in pomp to visit and fertilize the possessions of the owner. This explanation seems to be the more probable, as the second leaf shews us Diana, or the moon, issuing from the sea, in the same manner as Bacchus, or the sun, is quitting the waves: the ideas of the artist are however confused in this piece, for he has by no means followed any regular plan, and the same remark is applicable to the next plate.

The office of the madmen, or fools, as described in this fine dyptic, was composed by Pierre de Corbeil, Archbishop of Sens, who died on the 3d of the ides of June, in the year 1222; it is very well written.

The most singular of the festivals which were celebrated in our churches was doubtless that of the fools; being a mixture of religion and disgusting impiety; and it has been considered by the most celebrated authors as the remains of Pagan traditions, or a gross imitation of the Roman Saturnalia. It is a certainty that these festivals were nearly similar; and the Saturnalia were likewise derived from the ancient fêtes celebrated in honour of Ceres and Bacchus, from which the most ludicrous and licentious deviations have originated. But as, in the periods of ignorance, religion was mingled with every thing, it was necessary to accord with the natural inclination of men for fêtes and shows, to combine them with every thing, and hence the first dramatic representations were pious farces, which were performed at the conclusion of vespers on a sort of hustings, erected before the doors of the churches by pilgrims. The period of Christmas was a time of rejoicing, which reminded the people of the birth of the Saviour of the world; and what moment could have been chosen more favourable for giving way to pleasure and rejoicings than the time which preceded the long fastings and the melancholy period of devotion to which our Saviour applied himself, which is called his Passion. The characters who were conspi-

cuous at the nativity of Jesus, as Joseph, the magi, and the shepherds, nay, even the animals, which are always represented in the stable, or, as it is scripturally called the manger, seem overcome with joy at the mysterious event of the birth of the Lord; and their delight is represented in a ludicrous way, because the manners of the people were at that time unpolished. The ancient custom of disguises was not forgotten, and was naturally resorted to, in order to represent the personages, and even the animals who bore a part in the festival. Hence it is useless to refer to the Romans to find the origin of the festival of fools *(la Fête des Foux)*; it is not an imitation of the Saturnalia. The progress of civilization has abolished this festival, and there only remain to satisfy the people, certain days of disguises or masquerade, and rude amusements called *flesh-days*, or *the carnival.*

This feast of fools gave rise to many ceremonies of a very ludicrous nature, which it will not be useless to particularise: they elected a bishop, and even in some churches a pope of fools; the priests were bedaubed with dregs of wine and other filth, and were masked or disguised in the most absurd and ridiculous manner. On entering the choir, they danced and sung obscene songs; the deacons and subdeacons ate puddings and sausages at the altar before the celebrant, and even played with cards and dice in his presence, while they threw into the censor pieces of old shoe leather, with which they perfumed him; they then dragged the deacons through the streets, and threw them into carts or barrows full of ordure, at the same time putting themselves in lascivious postures, and making indecent gestures. There are several monuments still extant, which relate to these impious and disgusting farces, some of which represent stalls, whereon are seen monks with some trifling bauble, and with asses' ears; thus representing the manner in which the actors at the festival of fools disguise themselves. The dress which poets and actors give to the god Momus owes its origin to these burlesque ceremonies.

This festival received modifications in various countries in which it was celebrated, and it had different names, on account of certain ludicrous ceremonies which were added to it; hence it was called, in some parts, *the festival of the subdeacons, or drunken priests, the festival of the cuckolds*, &c.; and the church of Sens was the place at which more apparatus was used in these ceremonies than any where else.

The manuscript contains, with variations, the celebrated song called *Adventavit asinus*, which was sung on conducting the ass, clothed with a fine housing, to the door or towards the altar, which was one of the principal ceremonies at the fools' fes-



Maurice, archbishop of Paris, who died about the year 1196, made many attempts to abolish these absurd superstitious, but he could not succeed, as the author of this custom was then alive, and did not die till the year 1222, while many traces of it remained after him. An act of 1245, contained in the archives of the chapter of Sens, states that, at this period, Odon, bishop of that church, prohibited the masquerades in question; but they were not altogether abolished; in fact they lasted two centuries longer; for we find that, in 1444, the faculty of theology, at the request of several bishops, wrote a letter to all the prelates and chapters, to condemn and abolish this ceremony, though the acts of the Councils, which were held in 1460 and 1485, only speak of them as abuseswhichshould be retrenched; and it appearsthat, as late as the years 1514 and 1517, these acts gave permission for them to be celebrated. In 1511, a priest of the fools, named Bissard, allowed himself to be shaved in the same manner as the comedians, to play some part in the festival of the Circumcision, and we find that the festival of fools was sometimes forbidden, and at other times permitted, till towards the end of the sixteenth century, at which period it ceased entirely.

Behind the principal altar of the church of the college are four bas reliefs which deserve the attention of the curious traveller; they belong to the tomb of the Chancellor Duprat, archbishop of Sens, which tomb was in the cathedral, but has been destroyed. The Prelate was represented dead, and already devoured by worms; a custom adopted at that period, and which was as disgusting by the hideous objects which it presented to the view as it was unfavourable to the developement and progress of the arts. These four bas reliefs were saved from destruction, and remained for two years concealed behind some books, but they are now placed in the college church; they are altogether fifteen feet long, by fifteen or sixteen inches high, and are divided into four parts, which decorated the faces of the base of the tomb. Each of them represents one of the most remarkable events in the life of the Cardinal. He was born at Issoire, in 1463, and rose successively to several great employments, through the interest of the Duchess of Angouleme, mother of Francis I. After the death of his wife, by whom he had two sons and two daughters, he entered into orders. At this time he was first President of the Parliament, and afterwards became Bishop of Meaux, and of Albi, and finally Chancellor. He is represented in these bas reliefs fulfilling his different functions, surrounded by his inferior officers.

The only aim of Duprat seemed to have been to enrich and advance himself, and he succeeded; Pope Clement VII. gave him the Carnal's hat, and appointed him Legate in France; in which quality

more scarce, in consequence of the destruction of the edifices in which they were consecrated to religion. A canon named Raoul has an epitaph over his remains, replete with contractions, which render it almost unintelligible, but of which the following is a correct transcription :

Morte soporatus juvenum pulcherimus unus
Nomine Radulfus, *hic recubat positus,*
Qui patiens, humilis, mitis, castusque, suavis,
Præfulgens meritis clericus atque fuit :
Ob animam cujus cuncti rogitate precantes.
Parce, Deus, famulo qui jacet hoc tumulo.

This epitaph was incrustated in the south wall of the church of St. Sauveur, in the ancient cemitery of the cathedral, and the canons of Sens, as we are informed by a modern inscription in letters of gold, which is placed below it, caused it to be removed to the cathedral in 1761, conceiving it to be a venerable monument of antiquity, and a testimony of the canonical sanctity of one of their predecessors.

The revolution caused several monuments which attracted the attention of the curious, to disappear from the cathedral, and we sought in vain for those of Salazar and Duperron. It is astonishing that the mausoleum of the Dauphin, the father of Louis XVI. and of Marie Josephe of Saxony, his princess still exist, though the revolutionary fanatics scattered the ashes of this illustrious couple, who were distinguished by the most striking virtues; but this mausoleum is no longer in the choir, and the various figures do not produce the effect which they did in that august sanctuary that originally contained them : they are removed into a small chapel which serves as a vestry or magazine. I must confess that this monument did not make that impression upon me which I was led to expect, as I had always heard its composition highly panegyrized; but the allegory is very complex, so that the meaning of it cannot be easily understood.

On ascending to the lantern of the steeple we had a delightful view of the course of the Yonne and the fine surrounding countries, while before us were the little chapel of St. Martin du Tertre, and a tombelle which probably holds the remains of some valiant Senonians. What are called *tombelles* are elevations of earth in a conical form, which anciently served for Gaulic and Frankish chiefs; they are to be met with in every part of France. As there is another of these elevations at a short distance, the inhabitants of Sens, who are curious to know the history and antiquities of their country, might open one of them and examine its contents, while the other might be preserved as a monument.

Many writers have attempted to throw ridicule on the treasures of churches; and it is certain that monkish fraud has often lain the pious simplicity of the people under contribution, while by shewing them pretended relics they could not but render them incredulous respecting the authenticity of real ones; but it must on the other hand be admitted, that it is to these treasures we are indebted for the preservation of many precious monuments. Amongst the ancients the treasuries of the temples, which were placed behind those edifices in the episthodomes, were filled with vases, tripods, candelabræ, votive shields, with images of Victory and other divinities; being the offerings made by kings, individuals, and the people at large. It was in these sacred asyla that monuments of the highest antiquity were preserved; for example, it is known that the celebrated coffer of Cypselus was kept in the temple of Juno at Argos.

The treasuries of christian churches have likewise been enriched by an abundance of offerings, and they also formerly contained many curious monuments which illustrated christian antiquities; while profane monuments were kept with them, because pious credulity had consecrated them to religion, and pretended to trace in them some semblance to holy mysteries. Thus many articles of the highest importance have been preserved to us. Nearly all the dyptics have been taken from sacristies, one of fine sardonyx, which is now in the imperial cabinet, and which represents the dispute between Neptune and Minerva, to ascertain which of them should give their name to the town of Cecrops, was supposed by the Christians to represent Adam and Eve.

As all the churches in France were pillaged at the time of the revolution, our researches in the vestries were in most cases fruitless. That of Sens was the only one which we discovered to possess some remarkable articles, which the civil sexton shewed to us with all the complaisance imaginable; he first conducted us into the hall of the Chapter-house, which contains the portraits of several archbishops, and is embellished with a fine tapestry of silk and gold, representing the Adoration of the Magi: this place also contains the armouries of the house of Bourbon-Vendôme.

The relics in the treasury here, are, a piece of the rod of Moses, a bone of the prophet Isaiah, a bit of the seamless coat, a piece of the real cross, and other absurdities of a similar nature, for imposing on the credulity of the ignorant; but the finger of St. Luke with the flesh on it, about which the two Benedictine travellers already mentioned spoke with so much fervour, has disappeared.

Among the ecclesiastical antiquities we observed the chasuble of St. Thomas of Canterbury, of the Greek shape, with the ma-

niple, the stole, the cordon, the tunicle, and the mitres. This violent and audacious Prelate, who wished to liberate the clergy from their legitimate authority, and to subject his king to a foreign power, retired to the abbey of Pontigny, and afterwards to that of St. Colombe, from which last mentioned place the ornaments in question were brought hither; and the celebrant uses them all, with the exception of the mitres, on St. Thomas's day. There was shown to us a curiosity which they called the comb of St. Loup; it was of an enormous size, with two sets of teeth, and ornamented with stones and figures of animals; in the middle was this inscription: "Pecten sancti Lupi;" which is, the comb of St. Loup. It appears that, in the early ages, the priests were not satisfied with merely washing their hands before mass, but they also combed their hair, which is the reason why combs are found in the treasuries of churches.

There is in this treasury an interesting curiosity; it is an ivory box, with twelve faces or fronts; the lid is of a pyramidal form, and the brim is ornamented with a circle of enamelled copper, which must be as ancient as the plates of ivory; these plates were, without doubt, formerly attached to a box of a much richer kind. The plates of ivory represent the history of Joseph and his brethren, and of David; there are Greek inscriptions above the figures, to illustrate the subjects, but they have been almost effaced in attempts to clean the ivory. In these engravings the various adventures of the distinguished characters just mentioned are described with tolerable precision, in thirty-two squares or divisions. There are many other curiosities in this treasury which are worthy of the attention of antiquarians.

As soon as we had dined, M. Tarbé conducted us through the town; we went first to the house of M. Thomas, an opulent goldsmith, who, during the revolution, bought up all the pictures which he could obtain in the departments. These *crusts* ornament a church, of which he is also the proprietor, and which he lets out for public worship. They are, for the most part, unworthy of notice; but we were shown the portrait of an old man painted with the finger, and as it was pretended by Annibal Carracci. This painter was in the habit of giving very bad pencils to his students, and, on their complaining, he answered that, to clever artists, the state of the pencils was of no consequence, and that, for his own part, he could paint with his finger. To prove his assertion, he immediately painted the head in question; but Baldinucci and the other authors who have written the life of Carracci, do not mention this anecdote. Probably this great artist may have amused himself by painting the head in the way described, but he could not have said seriously the

words that are attributed to him. The authenticity of the picture is, however, more doubtful than the rest of the anecdote.

At the village of Soucy, near Sens, in the year 1501, was born John Cousin, who is considered as the founder of the French school. He married there the daughter of Lubin Rousseau, Lieutenant General of the Bailiwick; but though his principal establishment was at Paris, the property of himself and his wife was at Sens, in consequence of which he went to pass several months every year in that town, and each time left behind him many of his works, principally paintings upon glass, as this was the department in which he most excelled, and several of his principal pieces still ornament our churches. The other kinds of paintings of this master, are very scarce; the one most celebrated is his Last Judgment, which is at present in the Napoleon Museum. On leaving the house of M. de Bonnaire, to which we had been taken to see a picture by the artist just mentioned, but which did not at all equal our expectations, we proceeded to that of M Cherchedieu, the proprietor of a manufactory of glue, made in the English manner, and established by an Englishman named Hall, of whom M. Cherchedieu is the successor. He very obligingly showed us all the processes of his manufactory, with which we were not before acquainted; we were informed that after the glue is boiled, a great degree of attention is necessary in the drying of it, and that the influence of the air is of much importance. If it be frosty weather, the cakes which are to be dried turn into ice, and there are so many bubbles of air formed in them, that the glue is affected in its quality, insomuch that they cannot be sold, except when mixed with better cakes; while, if the weather be too hot, the gelatinous part of the substance dissolves, and the whole operation must be commenced again; in short, the only time favourable for drying the cakes is when the wind blows, and the air is dry. The other processes employed in the making of glue, are too well known to need description. The quantity of glue sold from this manufactory produces annually about forty thousand livres, which amounts to 16,666 pounds sterling. The current price at which the glue is sold, is about twenty sous per pound. M. Cherchedieu assures us, that there is no other establishment of this kind in France, except at Lyons. The principal branch of industry at Sens appears to be its tanneries. The leather hall, which we saw on passing, is a spacious building, which is particularly remarkable for the lightness and solidity of its roof.

The environs of Sens, on the side at which we left it, are very picturesque, and well cultivated. The little river called the Vanne divides into a great number of branches and streams, which not

only supply the town with water, but serve to move the machinery of the different manufactories, and supply them with water. At the outskirts of the town these different streams spread over the grounds, and irrigate the gardens, which are called by the old French name of *courtials*, in which are cultivated a quantity of kitchen vegetables, that, though they do not equal in flavour those produced at the marshes round Paris, yet compensate by their size for what they lose in delicacy. The gardeners here grow vast quantities of garlick, which attains a remarkable size, and which, with the other vegetables, forms a branch of trade with the neighbouring towns. These gardens are surrounded by alder trees, which once in three years afford a great quantity of loppings, that serve for vine props and fences.

A great variety of plants are to be met with in the environs of Sens; Monsainet, who published a botanical work in 1684, has given a catalogue of upwards of six hundred, which he found in this neighbourhood.

Near the tanning establishment of Messrs. Lordereau is a large branch of the Vanne, which is filled with floating timber, proceeding from the forests of Burgundy, and which is detained here to form it into those rafts that are conveyed by the Yonne to Paris. We crossed the Vanne on the floating wood, and arrived at La Motte du Ciar; which is about a quarter of a league from the river; but it is only a high and shapeless mass, though the rubbish and ruins announce that an edifice of some importance once existed on this spot. Some persons insist that it was a fortress built by Cæsar, but nothing indicates it to be a Roman structure; while others pretend that Reynard, Count of Sens, caused it to be built for the purpose of containing his treasures. The most probable opinion, however, is, that it was an ancient fortress, built in the middle age, but not by the Romans.

As we had now little to examine, we wished to see what was most curious, and having heard much talk of the *water-watches* which are made at Sens, were desirous of having some idea of the mode of making them; M. Tarbé, in consequence, introduced us to the person who has gained the greatest reputation by manufacturing these articles, and who is a pewterer, named Hunot. These water-watches consist of a round box, divided into compartments, and each partition is perforated with a small hole, to let the water escape drop by drop; in consequence of which the box, by this successive evacuation of the water from one compartment into another, descends imperceptibly between two uprights or scales, along which are indicated the hours, which the box points out as it descends.

It is pretended that these clepsydræ were invented at Sens several centuries ago, by a monk of St. Pierre-le-Vif. The town is

still known as the place at which these instruments are manufactured, and numbers of them are purchased by foreigners, as articles of curiosity. M. Hunot often sends packages of them to Russia, Spain, and even to America.

The quantity of water employed for each clepsydra is the point of which the workmen make a mystery, but it might be easily ascertained.

Several ingenious watchmakers of Geneva have sent for these water-watches, to complete their collection of instruments for measuring time; they are sold at from three to six francs each, according to the size.

Being informed that there had been lately dug up, in the orchard of the Misses Sauvalle, a Gaulic tomb, and which was exposed to all the injuries of the weather, I went to examine it. It exhibited a rude sculpture of a pretorian soldier, with an ample *sagum*, which resembled the dress of a charioteer; in his hand he holds a box, or basket with a handle, and on the stone is the following inscription:

VALERIUS ... ... SVS CAVSARI .. EX MILITE PRETORIANI FRAT. ET CONIVX PARAV. Which is, when the effaced letters are filled up, VALERIUS ... ... SUS CAUSARIUS, EXMILITES PRETORIANI FRATER ET CONJUX PARAVERUNT.

Several persons who have seen this monument, have filled up the name and surname in an arbitrary manner. The word *causârius* means an invalid, or veteran soldier. The s at the word *milites*, has been omitted through the ignorance of the sculptor, who has also put an E instead of Æ, at *pretoriani*. The box or basket, which Valerius holds in his hand, might give reason to suppose that he was employed in the office of distributing money or other gifts amongst the pretorians. An antiquary of Sens has pretended that the word Valerius indicates that he was an ancient lord, and founder of the burgh of Vallery; but if this explanation be not satisfactory, it certainly did not cost the inventor any great effort. In the same spot were found several leaden coffins, which weighed upwards of three hundred pounds each.

We next went to visit the ancient church of St. Savinian, which is now the property of a respectable family, who have consecrated it as a burial place. We saw the crypt, and we were shown, upon the altar, some red spots, which were said to be drops of the blood of St. Savinian. We copied some inscriptions relative to the martyrdom of Sts. Savinian and Potentian; they are cut in a very rude style, and cost us much trouble to decypher; they are however venerable on account of their antiquity, and are worthy of being removed to the cathedral. The contents of the first monument, which afford a fair specimen of the rest, are, when decyphered, as follows:

Per flores rosei sanguinis, sumpserunt coronas victoriæ martyres Christi Savinianus et Potentianus cum multitudine ingenti, et ibi tumulati sunt pridie kalendarum, Januarii. That is, By the flowers of the rosy blood, the martyrs of Christ, Savinian and Potentian, have acquired crowns of victory, together with an innumerable multitude, and were interred here on the eve of the calends of January, (the last day of December.)

CHAPTER V.

MANUSCRIPT OF A WORK OF GILES OF ROME—COTTON MANUFACTORY—COMPACT OF THE LEAGUERS OF SENS—DEPARTURE FROM SENS—FOUNTAIN OF VERON—VILLENEUVE-SUR-YONNE—JOIGNY, ITS BARRACKS, CHURCH, AND CASTLE—VOVES—BASSOU—APOIGNY—AUTISIODORUM—AUXERRE—VARIOUS ANTIQUITIES—SINGULAR CUSTOMS—PUBLIC LIBRARY—MANUSCRIPTS—CLOCK—PETRIFACTIONS—REMARKS ON SOME ILLUSTRIOUS INHABITANTS OF AUXERRE.

BEFORE our departure we visited M. Cave, the mayor of the town, who pressed me to offer to the Imperial Library a manuscript entitled *Liber de Regimine Principum*, composed by Giles of Rome, general of the order of Augustins, and archbishop of Bourges. The library already possessed some copies of this treatise, which has been printed at several periods, and translated into Spanish; but this manuscript is curious, on account of a vignette, which represents Giles of Rome reading his book to Philip the Fair, to whom he had been preceptor, and whose prayer he had composed; at the feet of the king are several courtiers, who are hearing the lecture, and expressing their admiration of it.

We visited the cotton manufactory of M. Leuba, which contains fourteen spinning machines. There are one hundred workmen employed in this manufactory, and the quantity of thread or twist daily produced is eighty pounds; the principal sale of it takes place at Rouen.

M. Hardi, formerly counsellor to the election of Sens, who possesses a large library, showed us a great curiosity, which was the original covenant of the Leaguers of Sens against good King Henry. At that time Sens was divided into four quarters, each of which signed an act of union against this Prince, in

which they merely give him the title of King of Navarre. Each quarter prepared a compact for itself, but that of the quarter of the Yonne, which is possessed by M. Hardi, is the only one which has been preserved. It is pretended that the signatures are written with the blood of the confederates, but the deed makes no mention of such a circumstance. Some of the names do indeed appear of a reddish colour, but this is owing to the action of the air upon the ferruginous particles of the ink.

The names of the streets, such as the Synagogue-street, the Great and the Little Jewry, as well as an ancient burial-ground, called the Cemetery of the Jews, prove that this place was formerly inhabited by the race of Israel, who must have been very numerous here, whither they were probably driven by Philip Augustus, who was excited against them by the Archbishop of Guy des Noyers.

Some of the doors of the houses in this town are of an agreeable form, and of the style of architecture of the time of Francis I. The Archbishop Poncher apparently had a taste for the arts, as it was he who caused the gate of the archiepiscopal residence to be constructed, over which there is a pretty moresque work, ornamented with the shell, the principal piece of a bishop's coat of arms. Many of the edifices in the town, which are evidently of the sixteenth century, are attributed, though without any foundation, to the artist who executed those which were ordered by Stephen Poncher.

Besides the manufactories which we visited at Sens, there are many others of the ordinary kind, such as breweries, bleaching-grounds, establishments for hat-makers, druggists, cotton, stuffs, flannels, fustians, &c. &c.

In the time of Henry IV. the wine of Sens was reckoned one of the finest made in France; but it has now lost much of its fame, and is very inferior to that of Burgundy; the best is what comes from St. Paron, a small place about a league from the town.

We at length quitted Sens by the gate of the Yonne. The reader will perhaps think that we have detained him too long with our account of this town; but though it is now the miserable residence of a sub-prefect, it was formerly the capital of the Senones, and the metropolis of one of the Gaulic provinces, being also the seat of an archbishop, on which even Paris itself was dependent.

When we set off the weather was dull and rainy. We quitted the town at Porte Dauphine, and the suburb of St. Pregs. On crossing the canal of the Vanne, we had the Yonne on our right. The road is planted with fine trees, and on the left are numerous

hills, covered with vineyards, and occasionally interspersed with woods.

About two leagues from Sens, and one from Villeneuve-sur-Yonne, is the fountain of Veron, famous on account of its incrustrations. We did not, however, think that this quality, which is so well known to appertain to the spring, was worth our while to turn aside to observe it.

Villeneuve-sur-Yonne, which we soon afterwards arrived at, was formerly called Villeneuve-le-Roy, which name it received from its founder, Louis VII. The bad weather prevented us from visiting the church, the entrance to which indicated its construction to be of the time of Louis XIII.

The road here is difficult and sandy; the Yonne continues to run to the right, while to the left the calcareous hillocks are all the way covered with verdant vines; and, after passing through two villages, called Villecien and St Aubin, we arrived at Joigny, which M. Lebeuf pretends is the ancient *Baudritum*. The most remarkable building in this town is the bridge, which consists of seven arches, the two middle ones being much larger than the others, for the purpose of facilitating the passage of timber and barges. They generally propose to travellers to visit the barracks, which consist of a large building, partly of freestone and partly of bricks; but it is merely like most buildings of the same kind. The town is built on such a steep declivity that, if the motion of a person is once quickened, he is obliged to run all the way down the hill; while the houses are situated so exactly above one another, that the windows of the highest row are level with the chimney tops of those next below them. But though this situation is inconvenient for travelling, or even for the common intercourse of the inhabitants, it nevertheless has its advantages. The vines in the environs of Joigny, being all exposed to the rising sun, furnish a great abundance of wine, which is much esteemed as a common beverage.

The church is very small. We remarked in the baptismal chapel, a Christ at the tomb: this group, in marble, is composed of eleven figures of the natural size. It was given by a duke de Villeroi, whose bust, as well as that of his lady, are contiguous; their costume appears to be of the time of Louis XII. The castle of this town is neither very old, nor in any respect remarkable.

The promenade at the bottom of the town, on the bank of the Yonne, is very agreeable. In general from the bridge as far as Auxerre, this river is bounded by fine meadows, which afford pasturage to great numbers of cattle, while the eye is cheered by the carriages which are continually passing on the road; as

well as by the rafts and barges that are moving down the river.

On leaving Joigny, we had in front of us the road which leads to that spot where the virtuous Malesherbes made so many useful experiments in agriculture. Several of the grounds in this vicinity are irrigated by means of trenches: the willow and poplar grow on them in great abundance, and with singular rapidity.

The villages at which we soon arrived in succession were those of Vores, Charmoi, Bassou, and Apoigny, from which we descended to Auxerre, down a steep hill, from the top of which we saw the whole of the town, which appeared to be of a round form. We were soon over the bridge, and were much pleased with the prospect of the river, which contained a number of little isles, animated by flour-mills in motion.

Every thing that is necessary to be known respecting Auxerre is contained in the two enormous volumes of the indefatigable Abbé Lebeuf. The Romans, who doubtlessly corrupted the Celtic name, called this town *Autissiodorum*, of which the word Auxerre is a derivation. St. Pelerin introduced the Christian religion in the third century; and after the death of Clovis, it made a part of the kingdom of Orleans. Louis le Debonnaire comprised the Auxerrois in the states of his son Charles; and this county was afterwards reunited to the Dutchy of Burgundy in 1669. Attila, the Saracens, the Normans, the Calvinists, and the English, have, at different times, ravaged this town, and the marks of their excesses are still shown. At present it is the chief place of the department. It is in a very agreeable and picturesque situation. It is here that travellers, who come from Lyons by water, after having taken the route by land from Chalons, re-embark on the large and heavy barges which are called *Auxerre coaches*.

There is a famous inn at this town called the Leopard, and kept by a literary landlord. We of course stopped at it, and received the best attention from M. Bonnard, its owner. He was professor of mathematics at the central school, and has brought up several pupils, who now make a distinguished figure. Amongst them is M. Fournier, prefect of the Isère, who is a good friend to his old tutor. M. Bonnard married an estimable woman, who brought, as her portion, the inn in question. He does not appear to have studied the Treatise of Apicius, *le Cuisinier François*, or l'Almanach des Gourmands; but he devotes himself peaceably to his mathematical calculations, and talks with his guests, without volubility or importunity, on subjects of literature and politics. Hence he is much esteemed by his neighbours, who treat him with all the consideration which he merits.

We went from the inn to the residence of M. Tournier, who belongs to a family well known in the history of printing, and who is a bookseller at Auxerre; he also amuses himself with literature, and has a cabinet of medals: but in this unfortunately several pieces have been introduced of no value whatever, though many others are very curious and scarce.

On quitting M. Tournier, we went to visit and dine with M. de la Bergerie, a senator well known for the services which he has rendered to his country. This gentleman is very conversant with the muses, and his conversation is interesting and agreeable; the greatest rarity at his table was Migrenne wine, an article which is worthy of notice. Migrenne is a canton which was formerly a part of the domains of the bishops of Auxerre, and now belongs to M. de la Bergerie, who has boasted of its delicicious wine in a poem which he has published, and from which I have extracted the following passage:

> " Laissez les charlatans pretendre, avec de l'eau,
> " Un acide sucré, l'hièble ou le sureau
> " Ou sur le gras terrain du fertile Surenne,
> " Faire un vin qui surpasse ou le Vosne, ou Migrenne."

This wine is delicate, generous, and has a delicious smell: it is very strengthening to weak stomachs and convalescents, and there are few wines of Upper Burgundy which are preferable to it. It also has the very rare quality, for wines of this kind, that it will bear exportation. The bishops of Auxerre used to send it sometimes to England, and often to Italy. But the reputation of the wines of Auxerre in general, is of long standing; they were praised by Heric, who lived in the ninth century.

We had some amusement in the evening; for a company of strolling players being in the town, we went to see them perform. Their theatre, which was erected in an old church, was small, but agreeably painted and decorated; the curtain represented a view of Auxerre, taken from the quay of the Prefectorate; and the pieces which they performed were "*The Review of the Year VIII;*" "*Shakspeare in Love,*" and "*A House to be Sold.*" The orchestra was composed of amateurs, and led by the principal physician in the town. We thought that if this learned doctor did not always cure his patients, he at least treated them gaily! The female servants, who came with lanterns to conduct their masters and mistresses home, at the end of the performance, made a ludicrous appearance.

The next day we visited the church of St. Germain, which is certainly a building of great antiquity, but does not make a very impressive appearance; it is rather under ground, as you descend several steps to enter it. It contains no monument, but the crypts are remarkable, and have been revered for many ages, on account

of the great number of holy corpses which have been deposited in them. We entered them by the light of torches, and observed that the respect which the people bear for them is extreme. The Latin inscription which is over the entrance, forbids you to defile the sacred place with your shoes:—" Ne appropries huc; solve calceamentum de pedibus tuis."

These crypts are composed of low arches, sustained by small pillars ornamented with capitals; the galleries, the altar, and the chapel, are arranged like upper stories. The wall appears to have been re-painted, about the beginning of the last century, and the inscriptions which point out the spots that contain the bodies of the Saints, seem to have been executed at the same time. Several of the tombs are still entire, but many others have been broken open by profane hands. The crypts in general were despoiled by the revolutionary army, as well as by the galley-slaves and prisoners of war, who were confined here at various periods.

The cathedral, dedicated to St. Stephen, next attracted our attention; the portal is ornamented with an infinity of sculptures; the choir is very fine, but the canopy is of a bad taste. The whole building is badly lighted, and its religious obscurity excites a love for solitude; yet the painted windows are of the finest kind, but they have been in part destroyed; the rest of this grand building is in good preservation. At the entrance of the choir is the tomb of Nicholas Colbert, Bishop of Auxerre, who died in 1676, though the monument was not erected till 1713, when it was executed by order of M. de Colbert, Marquis de Tercy, the nephew of the prelate. The principal figure is a genius who is extinguishing a torch with one hand, and in the other holds a medallion of the bishop.

This church formerly had some very remarkable customs. The Festival of Fools was celebrated at it till the year 1407, and it was not till the year 1538 that the custom of playing at ball in the nave was abolished. On Easter-day the junior canon furnished the ball, and presented it to the dean, who tossed it about to his companions, and the game finished by a banquet, at which wine was not spared. One of the most singular customs was the heirship to the dignity of canon in the house of Chastellux, in memory of Claude de Beauvoir, Lord of Chastellux, who retook the town of Cravant from a troop of banditti, and restored it, without plunder, to the chapter of St. Stephen, to which it had previously belonged. The canon officiating, after preaching the customary sermon, presented himself at the entrance of the choir in a military dress, with boots and spurs, while over this dress he wore a fine white surplice, neatly plaited; a large belt was thrown over all, to which his sword was suspended; the spruce

canon had gloves on both hands, a falcon on his fist, an *amesse** on the left arm, while in his right hand he held a hat, adorned with white feathers. This habiliment appeared at first sight ridiculous, but on reflection it had, by the union of the attributes of religion and valour, a character of chivalry which was not unpleasing to the imagination.

The musical instrument called the *Serpent* was invented, in 1590, for the use of this church, by a canon named Edmé Guillaume.

We visited afterwards the public library, in which the manuscripts most particularly attracted our notice. We were shewn one of the year 1472, small folio in paper, with two columns, which contained the poetry of Fortunatus, the best part of the works of Prudentius, and the Bucolicks of Virgil. We were shewn also a Tree of Battles, a manuscript on vellum, with two columns. The work known by the name of the Tree of Battles was compleated by Honoré Bonnor; it was printed twice in the fifteenth century. But, above every thing, a Plautus attracted our attention, a manuscript on vellum, small folio, containing the eight comedies of that author; the writing very legible: a modern hand has added at the end *Monasterii sancti Germani Autissiodorensis congregationis sancti Mauri*; and beneath, in the same hand with the manuscript, we read *Johannes scripsit*. We observed a missal, with the musical notes extremely ancient, and anterior to those invented by *Gui D'Arezzo*. This library, which is extensive, may contain some other literary curiosities; but as all the books were piled in heaps together, we were only able to get a sight of a few, and were allowed no time for research.

The room which leads to the one we have described, is decorated with engravings and pictures, the last of little note; there is a plan of the city, and some portraits; among others we observed that of Lebeuf, a profound writer, and author of various works, which may be found in the list of the authors of Burgundy.

I could not find any of the inscriptions pointed out by Montfaucon, Lebeuf, and Caylus; however, M. de la Bergerie, after the hints which I gave him, made the most careful researches, and at length succeeded in finding some few of them, which he will doubtless give a place in the library; one of them is as under.

AUG SACR DEAE
ICANI
TTETRICIVS AFRICAN
DSDD

* An ornament which canons use when they go to the holy office.

"*Augusta sacræ Deæ Icauni T. Tetricius Africanus de suo dono dedit.*"

It appears by the above that the altar was dedicated to the Divinity of the Yonne by Tetricius Africanus. It is curious on account of its showing the nature of the worship paid to the river, which furnishes at this time its name to the department of which we are treating. This monument is yet in existence, but it has been used in a building. It seems as if even the statue of the Goddess is demolished, as we see the feet of one only near the place.

PRO SALVTE DOMINORVM VSIM DEDICAIT MODESTO ET PROBOCOS.

The description of the Consuls Modestus and Probus, inform us, that this offering was made in the year of Christ 228, for the preservation of the Emperor Alexander Severus, and of the Empress Julia Mammæa, his Mother.

In a small dwelling near the church of Notre Dame de la Cité is the tomb of Jucunda, with her figure and this inscription:

DM
MORINENTUM
IVCUNDE IVLIANI
FILIAÆ

It is described by Montfaucon and by Caylus. The Abbé de T— has a curious drawing of it, which represents the front of the wall, where he who made the discovery placed it, and the layers of a vine, which form a kind of frame-work round it. The canon, Fraid de la Chasse, who caused this house to be repaired in 1671, has engraved an inscription above it, in which it is said that Jucunda was the daughter of the emperor *Julian.* We must not however join in that opinion; we read in several inscriptions the name *Julianus,* without taking it to be that emperor.

M. Lairé had written to me, that, in the trenches made at Atia, near Auxerre, on the borders of the Yonne, an equestrian statue had been found, which is said to be that of Brennus, the Gallic general, who, after the place being taken from the Romans, gave it up to pillage and to the flames. It was with difficulty that we credited the existence of this monument. However, I went to

M. Guise, a wine-merchant on the quay, who is the proprietor of it. I have carefully examined the pretended *Brennus*; the horse is covered with a housing, ornamented with diamonds and crosses; upon this housing is a saddle with four pummels. The horseman is drest in a tunic, which descends to the middle of the thigh, and is bound with a girdle. We may notice men cloathed in this fashion on the tapestry of Queen Matilda. M. Lairé maintained his opinion on the strength of an inscription on a goblet of pottery found in the same place, and on which was the word "Brennos." This goblet has been broken, and it is evident that it was one of those vases so common among the Gauls, upon which we often see the name of the maker. The statue is a sculpture of the eleventh or twelfth century.

We saw likewise, in the same place, a very mutilated statue, which represented perhaps some empress, but the features are by no means to be made out; she holds a goblet in one hand, and in the other a cornucopia.

It contained also a very fine capital of a pillar, which has belonged to a heathen temple; it is of the composite order; each front is ornamented with a bust placed in the midst of the leaves of the acanthus. These busts represent four Roman deities, then worshipped at Auxerre, and one designed with some of the emblems peculiar to the Gauls; they are Jupiter, Apollo, Mars, and Mercury. Jupiter is beardless. It was thus that the Greeks represented Jupiter Auxur, or Axur, of whom some monuments are still in existence. This Jupiter holds in his hands two thunderbolts, which are each composed of three arrows, having a point at the extremities.

Apollo is represented as the god of the sun; is naked, with a *chlamys*, or mantle, thrown over the shoulder; he holds a torch in his hand; the head is much mutilated.

The bust of Mars is yet in a more deplorable condition; the head is gone, but the god may be recognised by his cuirasse and oval buckler, which has for ornaments, those conical bodies imitations of the petrifactions called belemnites, or thunder-stones. The right arm, which is extended, held without doubt the formidable lance which characterised the god of battles.

The bust of Mercury is one of the most perfect. This god is dressed with his winged cap; he holds in one hand a caduceus, in shape differing but little from those with which he is generally represented; his right hand holds a purse.

According to the stile of sculpture of the edifice to which the capital of the pillar belongs, it must have been of the third century.

In the evening we visited the town; we went first to St. Pierre, which the inhabitants call Saint Perè. This church,

which is now a chapel of ease, has been much dilapidated; it is not ancient; the gate bears the inscription of 1656; the body appears, however, of greater antiquity, which the architecture bespeaks; the windows, of painted glass, were the gift of Berthelot, the mayor of the town, in 1620, or 1624. The gate presents a mixture of the Gothic and modern taste, far from agreeable.

We returned by Joubert street, where are to be seen some remains of the ancient walls, constructed with large hewn stones by the Romans.

We passed by the square, in which is the great fountain. It is astonishing that they have not thought of obtaining a better supply, by means of another fountain on the lower ground of the hill, which is on a level with the town.

The clock is placed over an arch, near a tower terminated by a pyramid covered with lead, meant to serve, without doubt, for a belfry; one of the points of the hand of the dial represents the sun, the other the moon, which have their respective motions; the last also shews the phases. It is said that the maker, named Jean, who executed this master-piece in 1469, had his eyes put out, that he might never be able to construct such another. This popular tradition is in existence with respect to other clocks more curious than this.

We visited Saint Eusebe, another chapel of ease, which has nothing remarkable; that which is dedicated to St. Paul, the patron of the vine-dressers in this country, is handsome.

The bed of the Yonne contains a great many granites and speckled porous petrifications. The town is in part paved with rolled granite. The soil also contains numerous petrifications. In the environs of Auxerre were formerly discovered a great many columns, mutilated statues, urns, and tombs, but they have all disappeared.

We cannot quit Auxerre without making mention of the illustrious men which the place has given birth to. Jean Claude Fournier, the founder, celebrated in the annals of typography:—La Cuine Sainte Pelage, who has described with so much truth the manners of chivalry, and who had so perfect a knowledge of our ancient language:—Lebeuf, of whom we have already spoken; and Sedain, a negligent writer, but from whose pen we still possess several charming operas.

CHAPTER VI.

DEPARTURE FROM AUXERRE—THE YONNE—RAFTS—VERMANTON—GROTTOS OF ARCY—PRECY LE SEE—LUCY SUR BOIS—AVALON—PICTURESQUE VIEW—MONUMENTS—COMMERCE—RAGE FOR PLAY—ROMAN WAR—ROAD TO BURGUNDY—GRANITE—EPOISSE—CUPYLES' FORGES—SEMUR—THE FAIR—ARMANÇON—CHURCH OF NOTRE DAME—SINGULAR BAS-RELIEF.

WE quitted Auxerre the 21st April, and, in passing the bridge, which has nothing remarkable, we stopt some time to enjoy a most delightful prospect; we afterwards found the road to Troyes, which we left to take that of Lyon. Near to the bridge is a handsome country house, built in a very modern stile.

We had on our right the Yonne, and some charming landscapes. The borders of the river were covered with felled wood, ready to be floated down or loaded in boats. This river seems to have been nobly adapted for commerce, even in the time of ancient Gaul, but its name is not to be found in the classic authors. The votive inscription, discovered at Auxerre, in which it is called *Icaunus*, is the most ancient monument on which it is recorded. We do not find it mentioned before the ninth century, when it is designated under the name of Icaunas Hianna, Junia; an antique tradition has, however, consecrated what was known of it in Gaul, after the conquest of the Romans, under the name of Icauna.

This river is of great importance to trade, and is of easy navigation; after issuing from the mountains of Morvan, in the department of Nicore, where it has its source, it passes on to Clamecy, where it becomes navigable, and thence proceeds to Auxerre and to Sens, carrying with its stream immense barges, laden with the richest presents of Bacchus. After having received the Cure at Cravant, and the Vaime at Sens, it empties itself into the Seinè, at Montereau.

It is pleasant to see the long and narrow rafts, which they call *traines*, passing with the rapidity of a bird's flight, and which convey to Paris a great part of the wood necessary for the consumption of that great city. This wood is cut in the forests; they

sell it in bundles to burn, or square it for the carpenter. The timber intended for the latter use is conveyed by land-carriage to the river, when the boats are laden with it. The billets bear the mark of the proprietor, and are conveyed to the small rivers which join the Yonne, and into which they are thrown pell mell. A watch is kept along the shores of the rivers, so vigilant that not a single piece is ever lost. The Cure, the Armancon, and the Yonne, are the rivers which conduct these floating logs. The overseers distinguish by the marks to whom they belong. Those billets, bound with withes, are laid on casks, placed at equal distances, forming rafts, which are conducted by three men to Paris. These hardy pilots turn dextrously round the points of the shore, and avoid the flats, with which they are well acquainted; but particularly in shooting the bridges, under which they pass with the rapidity of lightning, they show the most perfect address and management; scarcely has the head of the raft appeared in view, than it is again almost out of sight. As soon as the raft is arrived at Paris, men plunge into the river up to the middle, loose the bundles, and put the billets in a heap into the waggon; however a sudden fall of rain, or a hard frost, occasions at times bad accidents, and sometimes a moment's negligence in steering those fragile vehicles in their proper direction, the raft strikes against the piles of a bridge, is broken in an instant, and the waters covered with the wrecks, which are taken up by boatmen, but of which the owner seldom recovers more than a very small part.

We crossed the celebrated vineyard-plot of Frances, and that of Coulange. We passed also near to Cravant, where the Yonne receives the Cure, and we changed horses at Vermanton, a small town known in the ninth century. There is an engraving of the gate of the church in the history of Burgundy, by Arbain Plancher. It is at this time in a bad state. The great tower, which is in the middle of the principal street, and which serves as a prison, has a handsome appearance.

After having passed Lucy sur Cure, we were half a league from the Grottos of Arcy, which are celebrated on account of the surprising effects produced by the stalactites and calcareous incrustations which form themselves into pillars and lustres, presenting an appearance of magic. These Grottos have been described by several authors, who compare them to those of Antiparos. In the months of March and April they are filled with water, and the entrance to them is difficult. As there are in France a great many such, and as night came on, we did not think proper to run the risk of catching cold, or at any rate of having a bad lodging for our curiosity.

We left on one side, the road to Tonnerre, crossed Prècy le See,

where we found a country separated by extensive forests, that of Hervaux on the left, is the most considerable. We took horses at Lucy le Bois, as the night approached. The post-master, who is at the same time an innkeeper, at first pretended that he could not furnish us, to compel us to lodge with him, but seeing that we were resolved not to alight, nor to stop until we arrived at Avalon, he consented to give us safe conduct thither.

The entrance to Avalon is striking by its regularity; the town is handsome, and agreeably situated. The under prefect, M. De Chateauvieux, an old officer, had the politeness to accompany us. The inhabitants of Avalon have considerable taste for music; it is their favourite amusement; they had formed, before the revolution, a club called the Society of *Melophilites*. The room where their concerts were held, was decorated by the same artist who painted the curtain of the theatre of Auxerre. The courteous and friendly M. de Chateauvieux conducted us to the Cours de la Petite Porte, called also Petit Cours. No stranger ought to pass Avalon without seeing this promenade, where he may contemplate the most delightful effects of nature, and admire the most charming scenery. It is astonishing that these enchanting landscapes are so little known to travellers. The two views of the Petit Cours resemble some of the scenery of Switzerland, but in miniature. These beautiful prospects have been painted, and the pictures were formerly in the Luxemburg gallery. The Cousin seems to play wantonly amidst the fertile vallies, where it forms various charming lakes and picturesque waterfalls, near a thousand toises in depth. The town stands in a plain; a little bridge crosses the river. The valley is surrounded with small hills, where the pointed rocks show their heads from among the thickets, and above the verdure, while the most delightful gardens in terraces appear as suspended on the declivities of the hills.

From the terrace of Petit Cours is seen the remains of a Roman way.

The promontory on which Avalon is built consists entirely of red coarse-grained granite, which they call Pierre de Morvandelle; that is to say Marvand.

Avalon has besides two handsome walks, that of the late garden of the Capuchins, and that which is called Terreau. We would have inspected the library, which is in the college, but the books kept there were in as much confusion as they would have been in the shop of a bookseller who was on the point of moving to another house. There is nothing worthy of remark about the church of Avalon. We saw in a building which was formerly dedicated to St. Martin, four columns of Cipollino Verde Antico. They say that they came from the Temple of Apollo, but it is an assertion without proof. M. de Chateauvieux, who showed

the greatest zeal for every thing belonging to his situation, intends to dig in quest of antiquities, at Mausé, three leagues from Avalon, where some monuments have already been found. The beautiful columns of *cipollino verde*, of which I have just spoken, prove that the Romans formerly inhabited Avalon.

They make in this town a great quantity of casks, which, although they appear rough outside, are better put together than those of Saulieu ; they are preferred to the latter, and are much in requisition. There are not many vineyards about Avalon, but they carry on a considerable trade in the wines of the surrounding countries,. and the wood of the neighbouring forests. There are also in the town two manufactories, which make coarse paper. The commerce consists chiefly in corn, wines, and, above all, in wood, which comes from Morvand.

The rage for gaming in this little town, which is immediately in the grand route from Dijon and Lyon, presents an absolute vortex; four principal coffee-houses were continually full of gamblers; the seductive but hazardous games of *Trente-un* and *Roulette*, were constantly played. The gamesters came there from twenty leagues round. I have seen a thousand Louis staked on a single card. We found in the inn where we put up, an unfortunate wretch who had been totally ruined at one of these houses.

Near Avalon we passed the magnificent causeway which Agrippa, son-in-law of Augustus, constructed about the year 700 of Rome, to go from Lyon to Boulogne. Some remains of it are yet found, though it is difficult to distinguish them. There is to be seen also, about a league from Avalon, in a little valley, an old Gothic bridge, supported on two arches *in ogee*. It is beyond this bridge that are discovered the remains of the Roman causeway.

I had a great desire to see the ancient church of Vezelay, which contains many curiosities; but this little excursion would have taken two days, and the weather was very bad, which made me continue my journey. We quitted the road which leads directly to Lyon by Autun, and made a great circuit to see Dijon and a part of ancient Burgundy. The pleasure I enjoyed, and the information which I acquired, sufficiently repaid me for the trouble and time of going so far about. We continued our way the 22d of April; the road was a granitic soil. We passed Epoisse, and came to Cussy-les-Forges ; soon after which the granite is no longer seen. Cussy-les-Forges is dirty and stony, but the granite lies underneath, and forms the principal part of the soil. After passing the avenue which leads to the Chateau de Ragny, we descend into a deep valley, and pass the Serain, which runs between rocks of a considerable height, over a bridge. There are no vines, but some

coppices of wood, through which appear rocks of that species of granite which is called *Burgundy granite*. After travelling through fields of corn, we crossed a small wood, about half a league in extent, and arrived at Semur, a town built on a steep rock, which we were obliged to climb, after having passed the bridge over the Armançon. Semur at present makes no great figure; nevertheless this little town, a short time before the revolution, had some importance; it was inhabited by several rich families. We found it full of people; as it was the day of the fair, there was no possibility of being accommodated at the inn of the *Côte-d'Or*, where travellers generally put up. After a great deal of trouble, we were compelled to lodge in an unwholesome inn, full of carriers and pedlars, and to sleep in a room which was a thoroughfare to several others.

M. Berthet, the under-prefect was ill, and unable to receive strangers; his affectionate and obliging manners interested us much, particularly on seeing him so much afflicted; we ought ever to hold him in grateful remembrance for having introduced us to the acquaintance, and, I may say, the friendship of M. Bruzard, a young man of great good sense and talent, and well versed in philosophy; he had the goodness to afford us a lodging with his respectable parents, who shewed us every civility; and, during the three days which we spent at Semur, we remained with them. We went to see the town in his company, together with a young physician, named Garnier, who had published, in the "*Magazin Encyclopédique*," several excellent extracts from valuable works on the Medical Sciences, and has since settled in Semur, which is his native place. We then were shewn the walk which has been made on a rampart of the ancient enclosure of the town. The situation, although inferior to that of Avalon, is nevertheless very picturesque; the Armançon runs at the foot of the town, as the Cousin waters Avalon. The Armançon is rather a torrent than a river, and is almost dry during several months of the year; it encircles the town on three sides, which gives it the appearance of a peninsula. The torrent forms some very pretty cascades in the bottom of the valley; the borders are beautified with gardens, meadows, and small houses, which makes the view very picturesque, but they have frequently suffered much from so dangerous a situation. We passed in front of the prison, which consists of four large towers, which are also very high; and we went to see the church, the principal gate of which has nothing remarkable; the statues with which it was formerly decorated, are entirely mutilated; but if the grand entrance has nothing to attract the attention of an amateur of historical monuments, that is not the case with one of the side gates, the arch of which is adorned with statues representing the seasons, and the different labours of each month; it is a kind

of zodiac, similar to that at Vezelay, and such as may be seen at Paris, at Arras, at Strasbourg, at Autun, and in other places; the upper part of the gateway within the arch is remarkable, as it serves to recall to the memory the death of the Count Dalmace, who was killed by the hand of his son-in-law, Robert the First, Duke of Burgundy, and son of Robert King of France. This prince was created Duke of Burgundy in the year 1032, by his brother King Henry the First; he was the head of the first race of the Dukes of Burgundy. His temper was so irritable, that in his rage he was guilty of the greatest excesses; he had espoused Heliè, the daughter of Dalmace, the Lord of Semur. Robert, being offended with his father-in-law at a banquet, stabbed him in several places, till he fell dead at his feet. Sorrow and remorse soon succeeded; he was shocked at his crime, and had recourse to the expiatory means consecrated by many examples of those times; he made donations to the churches, and founded the priory of Semur; he had the representation of his parricide engraved on the gate, to atone, if possible, as well by a public confession, as by this testimony of a sincere repentance. This singular monument still exists; the crown, which was on the Duke's head, in the different groups where he was represented, is the only broken part which has been defaced. This monument would not perhaps have escaped revolutionary rage, if it had not represented the crime of a prince.

The above representation is divided into three compartments; to the right, in the lower compartment, is represented the banquet, where Robert committed the crime. As we have no circumstantial detail of the event; it is difficult to trace the story. The explanation I conceive to be this—There are only three persons at the table, with crowns on their heads, and two others without. We may presume that the banquet, at which this fatal event happened, was a solemn feast, at which other princes assisted. Perhaps we see, near to Robert, his wife and some duke or count, who was a visitor. I take Robert to be the one who has a beard. What makes me of that opinion is, that he is represented thus in the groupe that follows; in addition to which he is alone, whilst the others are together, and probably on a kind of form; he is seated upon a cushioned chair, ornamented with the faces and paws of lions. These seats, which were imitations of the ancient Roman *curule* chairs, are represented upon the Diptycse, and other monuments of the middle age, and are the signs of royal, imperial, or consular dignity. Such is the one they preserve at Paris, in the Cabinet of the Imperial Library, and which is commonly known by the name of the Chair of Dagobert. One of the crowned guests points out to the Duke his victim, the wretched Dalmace, lying at his feet, and from whom a dog has taken a glove. The Duke

seems already conscious of the enormity of his crime, and as if he suffered remorse. The table is not splendidly served; a covered bason, a dish, in which is a piece of meat, and a jug, are all the articles. We have several other examples which prove the frugality attending the repasts of that epoch, or at least the simple manner in which they were represented.

In the next group, as I imagine, the Duke is represented regarding with horror the unhappy Dalmace, whose body, extended on the earth, seems to call for the vengeance of Heaven. The duke flies with horror from the feast which he has marred by this atrocious deed. Near him is a monk, who has his hand placed on the shoulder of a young man, holding a book under his arm. This monk, cloathed with the scapulary and hood, symbols of his profession, may be looked upon to be St. Hugo, founder and abbot of Cluny, son of Dalmace and of Aremburge de Vergy, and also brother of Hehè, wife of Robert. Thus the young man would be a son of Dalmace; but, in comparing this monument with others of the same time, it appeared more likely that this monk represented the Confessor of Dalmace, who shewed to Robert the soul of his father-in-law received into Heaven. The book is, in the ancient paintings, a symbol of beatification.

Robert has recourse to the means of all superstitious princes; he seeks an easy expiation, by donations to the church, and in distributing alms. We see, in the third groupe, a holy personage, described as such by the book he holds in his hand, who gives to the poor, without doubt on the part of the Duke, bread and fruits, which are in a basket; near him is a man who receives some of them in a vase; he inclines his head to present them to a cripple, who walks supporting himself on a short crutch with three feet, which might serve also for a seat.

These means of expiation may be supposed to have have succeeded for the Duke; but he must receive a formal absolution from the ecclesiastic power, which had the exclusive right of dispensing the clemency of the Deity. The head of the figure of the third groupe, represented on its knees, is broken; if it were perfect, we should certainly see the crown, and it was on account of which it was mutilated. The duke Robert implores his pardon; a priest, so described by the book he holds, says to him, in raising his finger towards Heaven, that God is touched with the sincerity of his repentance, and appeased by the gifts he has bestowed on the Church; that at length his crime is forgiven him. Another priest, on his knees, solicits the favours of the Deity. A tower and pinnacles indicate that the scene passed in the town, but there is no representation of the Church.

We have seen in the first compartment, the crime of Robert, and

what he did to expiate it; and afterwards the pardon which he obtained during his life. The second presents the result of that absolution after his death. We see, on the left, pinnacles which describe the town of Semur, and, in the inclosure of the walls, a church is discovered, that of Notre Dame, which the Duke built in expiation of his crime, and in which he was entombed.

In front of the church appears a cloud, which resembles a heap of fire and smoke, meant to represent Purgatory, through which he must of necessity pass; for God, notwithstanding his expiations, his repentance, and his alms, could not admit him in the abodes of the just, in the bosom of innocence and purity, except his soul had been purged by suffering a long time the punishment due to his crime, nor receive him in the regions of eternal blessedness, as the recompence of his piety. The Duke is represented as a youth, to signify that his soul is stripped of every thing earthly.

Several saints attend him in his exit from Purgatory; one of them, who is bearded, holds him by the arm to conduct him to the bark. It appears very singular that the passage to this abode of the saints should be represented exactly as the Greeks picture the passage to the Elysian Fields. The fable of the inflexible Boatman is of great antiquity, and we sometimes see it introduced in our religion; it is not found, however, in the monuments of the early ages of Christianity, but it is again produced under another form, about the eighth century, an epoch when many fables were introduced in the histories of France, and in religious subjects. On the sepulchral monument of Dagobert the First, we see, in the midst of a stormy sea, a bark filled with demons, who are conducting the soul of the unhappy prince. This monument is now in the building called the Museum of French Monuments. Michael Angelo, following the above examples, has introduced Charon and his boat in his "Last Judgment." To return to the Duke;—the bark which we have mentioned above is not filled with demons; it represents not the passage to Hell, but, on the contrary, the passage to the abode of the blessed; the boatman is sitting, and leaning on the oar, with which he rows the boat; two of the saints, whom we see in the preceding group, are standing; one of them has his head uncovered, and holds a book; the other, cloathed as a monk, leans on a great sword, which leads us to suppose, that it represents St. Paul; at the stern sits a youth; the extremities of the arms are broken; but it is easy to perceive, by the position, that his hands were joined; this is the soul of Robert, who is at length going to the abode of the saints. The Deity is at the top of the pediment; his right hand is raised up to diffuse on the earth the blessings which are

the effects of his bounty; and in his left is a globe, the symbol of his Omnipotence; two Angels are offering praise, to shew the perpetual devotion of the blessed; the clouds which surround this last part of the composition represent the Heavens, generally understood to be the habitation of the Deity, although he is every where present.

Such is the explanation which may be given of the figures of the bas-relief. This work, however, could not have been done in the lifetime of Robert, as there is reference to his death, and his entrance into the kingdom of Heaven. The tradition also tells us, that he was interred under the gateway, where this history is designed. I presume, therefore, that it was the monks and canons of this abbey who caused this bas-relief to be sculptured, after the death of the Prince. We have other examples of facts equally extraordinary. I have published, in my *National Antiquities*, a monument of the collegiate church of Ecouis, which represents the Deity rewarding Enguerrand de Marigny, for the injustice he suffered from Charles de Valois, who caused him to be hanged in consequence of the hatred he bore him. Marigny presents to the Almighty a crown of cords, signifying the manner of his death. It is astonishing that Plancher makes no mention of the crime of Robert, in his voluminous history of Burgundy; it is true it would have taken something from the great character which this monk gives of that Prince, because he was benefactor to several churches. But the fact is not the less true; it is recorded in the "Life of St. Hugo, Abbot of Cluny," by Hildabert; for although this author does not give the detail, he says expressly that Dalmace, father to the holy Abbot, was assassinated by Robert, his son-in-law, at a feast. According to the tradition of the country, we are assured, that it was the desire of the Prince to transmit to posterity the representation of his crime. The bas-relief which I have described, gives support to this tradition, which several learned authors have adopted without difficulty. On the last pillar, to the right hand, in the body of the church, there is a painting on wood, representing Jesus Christ raising his right hand, with the fore-finger and middle finger extended, and holding in the left the globe, surmounted by a cross. This picture, painted in 1299, has unfortunately been repainted; as we see by the inscription at the bottom—"*Hec fieri fecit mgr. Philibertq Blanchon, huic villæ de Senemuro, anno Domini*, CIↃº CCº *nonagesimo* IXº. And lower down we see: *Repeint*, 1612. It is probable that the painter has followed the original outlines. On the side of the head we see—*Ego sum via, veritas et vita*; and on the frame on each side, *Est superexcellens sententia.*

The painted windows in the chapels are very curious; in one of

them we see the different operations in the manufacture of woollen cloth; it is divided into four compartments; in the first, two men are employed in weaving; one throws the shuttle; the other receives it. In the second, a man naked in a great tub fulls the cloth. In the third, a man cards it; the instrument which he makes use of shews two rows of carding-wires, which resemble those which are used by the knitters of stockings and caps; it appears ornamented with heads of the *dipsacus*, or fullers' thistle, called, for that reason, *chardon à bonnetier*. In the fourth compartment, a workman shears the web, already fulled and carded, with a pair of large shears, which have exactly the same form with those in use at the present day for the same purpose. The dress of the workmen consists of only two pieces, namely, a kind of pantaloons which cover at once the thighs, legs, and feet, and a short waistcoat.

In another chapel are two compartments of painted glass, which represent the labours of the butcher; in the first a man is knocking down an ox with the back part of an hatchet; and, in the second, one placed behind his stall, cuts up the meat with a cleaver. These men are clothed differently from those before described; they wear stockings and an apron. Above these are windows badly painted, which represent the beheading of St. John the Baptist, and the history of St. Reine. The windows of another chapel are more remarkable for the beauty of the colours than for the interest of the subjects, which are badly designed; they are all taken from the bible and difficult to make out; but the red and blue may be compared to the brightness of precious stones. In another chapel, in a side niche, is a standing figure, about two feet high, on a pedestal, on the side of which is the name of St. Eloy. This Saint is represented in the attitude of a farrier, covered with a little hat, clothed in a common coat, with a leather apron, suspended at his neck by two strings; before him is an anvil, and he has in his hand a horse's foot: on the front of this anvil, are the several tools of a farrier; such as a hammer, pincers, horse-shoes, &c. It is said that St. Eloy is the patron of all those who work in metals. This figure appears to be of the fifteenth century, and shews the form of a farrier's tools at that epoch.

We afterwards visited the library, which is kept in a very handsome room in the late convent of the Ursulines.

CHAP. VII.

MANDUBII—MOUNT AUXOIS—CÆSAR'S CAMP—ALYSIA—SAINT REINE OF ALESIA—CASTLE OF BUSSY—PORTRAITS, WITH REMARKABLE INSCRIPTIONS.

HAVING heard much mention of the Chateau de Bussy, and of the singular paintings with which it is decorated, which had very much excited our curiosity, we had a desire to go there, and had the additional inducement of seeing in our way the place where Cæsar vanquished the Gallic nations, who armed in defence of their liberty. We therefore hired a post-chaise, and set off about ten o'clock in the morning. The road was very bad, and broken up by the rain: we were obliged to get out about twenty times; and at last left the chaise near a mill, at some distance from the village of Saint Reine, where the postillion had orders to wait for us. There we could contemplate the celebrated field where so many brave Gauls found an honourable death in defending their country. The valiant Vercingentorix, who at that time had conducted the war, was appointed General. After an unfortunate engagement, he retreated into Alesia, the principal city of the country of the Mandubii, a people who were subject to the Ædui. Cæsar besieged the place, which was on the summit of Mount Auxois. The foot of this mountain is washed by two small rivers, the Ose and the Oserain. Cæsar drew his lines about the city; his fortifications consisted of two parallel trenches; that which was in the valley had been filled by the water of the rivers. During this time, Vercingentorix was also intrenched under the walls of the city, and his camp was fortified by a trench and a wall of stones six feet in height; he sent back his cavalry, and gave an order to each horseman to return with all those who were capable of bearing arms, finding that he had not provisions to last more than thirty days. The Gauls chose out of each people a choice troop. Gaul made a great effort to shake off her bondage; two hundred and fifty thousand foot, and eight thousand horse, marched to the country of the Ædiu. The command was confided to four chieftains, and this formidable army marched on towards Alesia, as to certain victory. Cæsar found himself between the besieged, always in readiness to make a vigorous sortie, and a host of men animated with the hope of vengeance. His good

fortune, however, did not forsake him, but again seconded the efforts of his genius. The auxiliaries, engaged in a defile, were defeated, a frightful carnage ensued, and Vercingentorix, having lost all hopes, was compelled to surrender at discretion.

Authors have related differently the circumstances attending that memorable battle, which will be always a curious point of history, geography, and military antiquity. I shall not attempt to reconcile them, nor resume the discussion; it suffices for our contemplation to view the summit where the last defender of the liberty of the Gauls was forced to yield to the victorious Cæsar; the declivity of the mountain where that hero dug his impregnable lines; the surrounding heights on which the confederated Gauls encamped; the mount of which Vergasilaunus made the long circuit at break of day, to surprise an enemy ever on his guard; the defile where he had the rashness to engage; and that, by which Cæsar, having himself made a diversion, fell upon the rear of the enemy, which decided the victory. We gave a melancholy tribute to the memory of these noble Gauls, without being able, at the same time, to refuse to their enemy a tribute also of that admiration which genius and courage ever command.

Alesia was one of the principal cities of the Gauls, according to Diodorus. Hercules, on his way back from Sicily, laid the foundation; and it was called Alesia from a Greek word signifying terror. The manner in which this city was founded, as given by that author, is as ridiculous as the etymology of its name, which is derived from some Celtic word; but the opinion of Diodorus proves, that he attributes to it great antiquity. It is probable that it was destroyed by Cæsar. It was rebuilt under the Emperors; and it was in Alesia that they invented the art of plating by heat the ornaments of the horses, and the yokes of the cattle which drew the carriages.

The time when Alesia was destroyed is not exactly ascertained; in 865 the vestiges only remained; instruments of sacrifice, household utensils, arms and medals, discovered in the mountain, further concur to prove the antiquity of this memorable place.

Although Alesia was destroyed, there yet remained some habitations. It received a new splendour at the time when the relicts of *Saint Reine* were removed thither, which have since been transported to Flavigny; however the worship of Saint Reine has been continued at Alesia. They believe that, after having resisted the seductions of Olybrius, and braved the rage of her executioners, she suffered martyrdom within its walls.

Alesia thus received the name of *Saint Reine d'Alise;* however, the time of the revolution, the name of the saint was suppressed, and the village simply called Alise. At the foot of the hill are the four pieces of stone which they say formed the tomb of the

saint; these stones have been much lessened in dimensions, from the zeal of the pious, who were anxious to preserve morsels of them as relicts.

The holiday of *Saint Reine* formerly attracted a number of pilgrims to this place; as many as twenty thousand have on some occasions been present. This pilgrimage recommenced since the Concordat, to the great joy of the inhabitants, who are able to sell their wine, as well as their chapelets, of which they make a great quantity; they make the beads of them with the middle part of the bones of the legs of domestic animals; the extremities serve to pave the rooms, and this singular inlaid work is esteemed as one of the curiosities of the village of *Saint Reine*.

The tomb of the saint is not the only curiosity which attracts attention in the village; there is also a celebrated fountain, the waters of which contain a purgative salt; they attribute to them miraculous effects, in the cure of ringworms. There is also an hospital in the village, which is inhabited by bathers during a certain season of the year.

At Alise is the following curious inscription, discovered in 1652:

TI. CL. PROFESSVS. NIGER. OMNIBUS.
HONORIBUS. APVD AEDVOS. ET
LINGONAS FVNCTVS DEO. MORITASGO
PORTICUM. TESTAMENTO. PONI
JVSSIT. SVO NOMINE JVLAE
VIRGVLINAE VXORIS ET FILIARUM
CLAVDIAE PROFESSAE ET IVLIANAE VIRGVLAE

That is to say—Ti. Claudius Professus Niger, after having gone through all the employments among the Ædui and the Lingones, has ordained by his will, that they should raise a portico to the God Moritasgus, in his name, and in that of his wife, Julia Virgulina, and of his daughters Claudia Professa and Juliana Virgula.

It is placed at the foot of a fountain in the garden of the late convent of Cordeliers. It is partly covered with moss, which tends to destroy it, and to render it almost unintelligible; it ought indeed to be conveyed to the Library at Semur.

The hills of Saint Reine, as well as those of Semur, Montherd, Vitteaux, and Flavigny, produce an abundance of the common wines, which are consumed in the country, or used for distilling brandy. The corn goes to the market of Dijon, or to Paris by Auxerre.

The road from Alise to Bussy is impassable; we pursued on foot the borders of the Ose, to find the Castle of Bussy. The

circuit of the mountain must first be made, and the castle is not seen until you are at the entrance. It is situated in a defile of mountains, and of rocks shadowed by lofty firs, and surrounded by moats full of water.

It was in this castle that Roger, Count of Rabutin, passed seventeen years of his exile, from 1665 to 1682. Bussy had a great dislike to the chace, which might have amused his mind. He gave himself up to meditation, study, and to every devotion for want of something to do; he covered the walls of his castle with a number of pictures which displayed the pride of his character, his love of gallantry, and the regret which he felt in resigning the profession of a courtier.

The building consists of a center and two wings, which together form the figure of a horse-shoe. The body of the house seems to have been constructed in the time of Rabutin. The two wings are of an architecture still more ancient, and sufficiently prove that they must have been built in the time of Henry II. In the left wing is the library, at the end of which we enter the chapel. The tower which is at the other extremity of the library, is the most remarkable part; the windows of this tower are ornamented with little Cupids; each group is suspended to a band filled with gallant inscriptions; most of these are very common, and shew no great talent for poetry. The following is one of the least insipid:

" Casta est quam nemo rogavit."

" Savez-vous bien comment elle a gardé son coeur?
C'est qu'on n'a pas tâché de s'en rendre vainqueur."

All the small pannels are filled with subjects of Mythology, Orpheus, Venus and Adonis, Cephalus and Procris, The Fall of Phaëton, the Centaurs, the Numidian Lion, and the Rape of Europa. At the bottom of these are also inscriptions in verse. Under the picture of Pigmalion, we read,

" Tout le monde en amour est tous les jours dupé;
Les femmes nous en font accroire:
Si vous voulez aimer, et n'être point trompé,
Aimez un femme d' ivoire."

Under that of Procris we read,

" Eprouver si sa femme a le coeur precieux,
Ce'st être impertinent autant que curieux.
Un peu d'obscurité vaut, en cette matiere,
Mille fois mieux que la lumiere."

Cephalus is dressed in an enormous periwig, according to the fashion of those times!

Above these pannels are the portraits of eleven women; in the middle is that of Roger Rabutin himself. These portraits are each accompanied with an inscription. The following are those most worthy of notice :

First,—Gillone de Harcour, Marchioness de Piennes, by her first marriage, and by the second, Countess de Fiesque ; a woman of a noble presence, a moderate fortune, and who had the heart of a queen.

Second,---Isabelle Cécile Hurant de Cheverny, Marchioness de Montylat, who by her inconstancy has done honour to the Ephesian matron.

Third,---Marie de Beauvois le Loup, the wife of N. de Choiseul, Duc du Plessis Praslin, pretty, lively, well informed, particularly of the faults of others, very sparing of her friendship, but not sparing of any thing to those to whom she gave it.

Fourth.---Catharine de Bonne, Marchioness de la Beaume ; the prettiest mistress in the kingdom, and the most amiable, if she had not been the most unfaithful.

Fifth,---Louise Antoinette Thérése de la Chatre, daughter of Edme de la Chatre, colonel of the Swiss Guards, Marchioness d'Humières, Lady of the Palace to Marie Térése of Austria ; a woman whose virtue, without being either austere or prudish, would have satisfied the most fastidious.

Sixth,---Madelaine d'Angonnes, Marechalle de Lafferté Senneterre ; handsome and well-disposed, but to whose conduct the care of her husband (who was a shrewd man), was not unnecessary.

Seventh,---Catharine d'Angonnes, Countess d'Olonne ; the most beautiful woman of her time, but not so celebrated for beauty as for the use she made of it.

Eighth,---Isabelle de Harville Paloise, the wife of N. de Montmorency ; worthy of a man not only of the highest quality, but of one of the most amiable character.

Ninth,---Lucie de Tourville. the wife of N. de Gouville ; handsome, amiable, witty, and as capable as any woman in the world of making a man happy, if she would but have loved him ; one of the best friends that could be.

Tenth,---Isabelle Angelique de Montmorency, daughter of Boutteville, Duchess of Chatillon, Princesse of Meclebourg ; to whom one could refuse neither the purse nor the heart, but who would set little value upon either.

In the chamber of Bussy, the ceiling is ornamented with blue paintings, which represent the Sybils ; there are also two ranges of portraits of persons of the house of Rabutin, placed immediately one after the other ; the last two are those of Madame de Grignan ; they are handsome. The saloon is adorned with two

ranges of portraits of commanders, with inscriptions of their names, their quality, and sometimes the circumstances of their life, and their degree of relationship to the house of Rabutin.

Between the two windows over the court, there are these emblems: First, a hand holding a pair of scales, in one of which is the figure of a woman, who had deceived him; she is outweighed by the empty scale. There is this motto, " Levior aura," " Lighter than the air." This woman is the Marchioness de Montglat.

The Second: The Goddess Fortune; she has the features of the same lady, the motto is, " Leves ambo, ambo ingratæ;" " *Both changeable, and both inconstant.*" This ungrateful woman had made Rabutin very unhappy; he doated on her, and believed that she was equally attached to him. When, by the indiscretion of the marchioness de la Beaume, he was sent to the Bastile, this lady forsook him, and, to excuse herself, pretended remorse, and a return to the duties of religion; but the real cause of her inconstancy was the disgrace of Bussy, and the change of his fortunes. He seemed to feel this perfidy more sensibly than either his imprisonment or his exile; for he mentions her perpetually in his letters; he wrote of her to several ladies; he seemed always endeavouring to forget her, and repeats a thousand times in prose and verse, that he is entirely cured of his passion; which proves that she was ever in his thoughts. At last he determined not only to make it the subject of laughter himself, but to make it so to others; and he quotes in one of his letters, the two devices I have mentioned above. This bitter irony is a proof of his passion; a contemptuous silence would have been a better proof of indifference. Bussy thought of his inconstant mistress a much longer time than he chose to acknowledge; for in his letters, written fourteen years afterwards, he continues to abuse her in prose and verse.

The library is in a long gallery, which is also adorned with a great number of portraits, with inscriptions, and a few without any. These portraits form several series; they are thus inscribed:

First. Celebrated men of letters. The following are a few of the inscriptions.

" Guy du Faure, lord of Pibrac, advocate-general of the parliament of Paris; a man wise, courteous, eloquent, and agreeable; who in his verses comprised every moral and religious precept."

" Michel de Montaigne, a gentleman of Gascony, who in his Essays shewed a very superior understanding."

" Rabelais, &c. curate of Meudon; who after having written a book which was thought nothing of, because it shewed

that profound learning which but few could understand, composed that extravagant and witty satire against the age in which he lived, which had so astonishing a run, and which will ever be held in the highest estimation.

Secondly. Great Statesmen; the inscriptions in general containing commendations.

Thirdly. *Mistresses and female friends of Kings.* I shall only give the following inscription:

" *Diane de Poitiers*, was married to the senechal of Normandy, and when a widow, became the mistress of Henry the Second, who gave her the title of duchess of Valentinois. When she first came to the court, she was lively and engaging; but after she attained the king's favour, she became haughty and interested, and the object of hatred to all France. She had by the king Diana, who by her first marriage was duchess de Castres, and by the second marechalle de Montmorency.

Fourthly. Above the windows was a suite of portraits of the Kings of France; they were all removed during the revolution.

The saloon on the ground-floor is entirely covered with paintings; those arranged above, represent a number of the most celebrated royal houses, or those belonging to princes, and some monuments of Paris; Chambord, Saint Cyr, The Observatory, Saint Cloud, The Luxembourg, Bernis, Les Invalides, Saint Germain en Laye, Vincennes, Gaillon, Anet, Villers Cotterets, Sceaux, Versailles, The Water-works of Versailles, La Beaume, Ruelle.

It seemed that Bassy wished to recal to his memory those scenes where he had been loaded with the favours of fortune and love.

The lower range presented a suite of emblems, with the devices similar to those we see in the *Recueils de Menetrier*, and other works of the same kind.

In the embrasures of two windows the devices and emblems have relation to the same inconstant beauty of whom we have already made mention.

First. A Siren; " *Allicit ut perdat.*" " *Ell attire pour perdre.*"

Second. A Swallow with the head of a woman, crossing the sea; " Fugit hiemes." " *Elle fuit le mauvais tems.*"

Third. The Face of a woman in a crescent; " Hæc ut illa." " *L'une comme l'autre.*"

These three faces have the features of the marchioness de Montglat.

Fourth. A Rainbow; " *Minus Iris quàm mea.* " Moins Iris que la mienne."

We observed in the dining-room a large picture of "Sebastian de Rabutin," with this incription, "Sebastian de Rabutin, lord of Savigny, illegitimate son of Hugo de Rabutin, knight of Malta, and commandant of Pontaubert, who was usher of the chamber to king Henry the Second, and who killed a fierce wolf that had terrified all the country; this exploit so pleased the king, that he had the portrait of Sebastian at Fontainbleau."* The conqueror of the wolf is represented in the costume of the time, holding a sword and dagger, and carrying a small carbine; he wears stockings, but no shoes, probably from the forgetfulness of the painter. Near this is a portrait of "Francis de Rabutin, younger brother of Sebastian by the same father: he was *gen-d'arme* of the company of Nevers." There is also in this room a front view of the mansion with the court; another of the garden side; with some other views, and a picture which represents the favourite of Rabutin under a pavillion of cloth of gold, attended by four pages habited in silver cloth.

We returned to Semur very fatigued, but extremely pleased with our excursion, which furnished an agreeable subject of conversation in the society of the amiable family, who had received us so hospitably.

CHAP. VIII.

CHATEAU DE BIERRE—INDIAN PICTURES—MONTBARD—BUFFON—HIS GARDENS—STUDY, &c.—DIJON—IMPLEMENTS AND UTENSILS OF THE MIDDLE AGE—SCEPTER—PURSE OF THE DUKES OF BURGUNDY—KNIVES AND FORKS OF THE GRAND CARVER—STUDY OF M. DESVOGES—LEGOUX D. GOSLAN—HIS BENEVOLENCE—GARDEN—ANTIQUE MONUMENTS, &c.

THE 14th of April we set off early in the morning. We wished to see the *Chateau de Bierre*, the celebrated mansion on which M. de Montigny, treasurer of the estates of Burgundy, had expended two millions. It belongs at present to M. de Sinclair, an officer of the Swedish navy. Madame de Sinclair received us in a very obliging manner. We went all over the park.

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vet in his Cosmography, says that he performed this act in 1548.

Several ornamental buildings which were formerly there have been destroyed, because it was too expensive to keep them in repair. We saw in the mansion some pictures, one of which is said to be a Corregio, and several landscapes of the celebrated Gesner, which M. de Montigny had brought back with him from Switzerland. We admired above all a collection of an hund and twenty Indian paintings, of different sizes, which represented costumes and curious portraits. These paintings had been sent to M. de Montigny by his brother, who had spent most part of his life in India. The chapel contains a monument which M. de Montigny had raised to enclose the heart of his father. Filial piety has not spared any thing that could express his affectionate remembrance of his parent. The tomb is finely executed in white marble, but it is not well designed.

On our return to Semur we found our carriage ready, and immediately departed. We took the road to Monbard, and soon perceived on an eminence the Chateau de Montfort, which we had been advised to visit. We stopped our chaise, and climbed the hill on which it is situated. No other habitation can give so complete an idea of the residence of a knight-errant. Before you get inside, you go into a first court through a gate; on the side of the great gate is the postern with the wicket; and there is to be seen the place of the portcullis, which formerly defended the entrance, and a large ancient machine to shower stones, boiling water, burning rosin, and melted lead, on the heads of those who would enter by force. The towers which flanked the castle are furnished with loop-holes. In the tower to the right is the chamber of the commandant, who from thence could see all that passed, and give orders. We came next to the chambers, which served to lodge the garrison, and then to the hall, the walls of which are covered with defaced escutcheons. The upper stories have a number of small chambers to lodge the warriors. The roof is terraced, has battlements, and turrets, and commands a view of the whole country.

This ancient habitation was occupied during the civil wars by the Palatine troops.

The chapel is supported by large pillars ornamented with Gothic capitals. A well more than eighty feet deep, furnishes water to the building.

We quitted this old castle, and continued our road to Montbard, where we arrived about four o'clock. We were eager to see this place, as it is celebrated for having been the residence of the immortal Buffon.

Montbard takes its name, according to some authors, from *Mons Bardus*. This origin would be worthy of a place which had given birth to the Bard of Nature; but it this not at all cer-

thin; for others derive it from *Mons Barri*. This place has had since the year 880, several rich and puissant lords. The mother of St. Bernard was the daughter of one of these lords. At length the demesne came into the possession of the family of Leclerk; and George Louis Leclerk, Count de Buffon, spent most of his life here, which gave a celebrity to Montbard which it will never lose, and which rendered it worthy the observation of all those who respect the memory of that great man. While our dinner was preparing, we went to see the habitation which had witnessed the glorious and useful labours of fifty years. We were introduced by honest Lapierre, who had been gardener to the Count de Buffon during forty-three years, and still takes care of this place for the widow of his unfortunate son, who perished on the revolutionary scaffold the 8th of Thermidor, pronouncing only in a calm and dignified tone, "Citizens, my name is Buffon."

The house seems the large habitation of a tradesman, rather than the residence of a man of rank. It is in the High-street, and the court is behind. You ascend a staircase to go into the garden, which is raised on the ruins of the ancient mansion, of which the walls make the terraces. On the top there still remains an octagon tower; where Buffon made his observations on the reverberation of the air. The elevation of this tower is an hundred and forty feet above the level of the little river Braine, which crosses the town. This singular and picturesque garden is well worthy of the notice of the curious. It is not so well taken care of as in the time of its illustrious proprietor; but the numerous foreign trees which he had collected, form several agreeable arbours. The kitchen garden is to the south-west, on seven different terraces.

The worthy Lapierre shewed us all those places in which his master most delighted, and above all the room in which he laboured during the heats of the summer. It is in a pavilion, which is called the Tower of St. Louis. Herault de Sechelles has described this modest and humble study. The entrance is by green folding doors; the interior has the appearance of a chapel, on account of the elevation of the roof. The walls are painted green. Lapierre made us, above all, take notice of another closet: it was a small square building, situated on the side of a terrace. Buffon used to reside there a great part of the year, because the other place was too cold. From this pavilion the prospect extends to a plain separated by the river Braine, and bordered by hills, which make a beautiful scenery. It was there that Buffon composed most of his works. He used to rise with the sun, make fast the shutters and the doors, and work for two hours by the light of wax-candles: Prince Henry, who

visited this humble study, called it the Cradle of Natural History. J. J. Rousseau before he entered, used to fall on his knees and kiss the threshold. In the time of Buffon this study was ornamented with drawings of birds and beasts. What pleasure we should have had now to have contemplated those representations; to have seen the old leather chair; the table of black birch; the large walnut-tree secretary which decorated this apartment; the old elbow chair in which Buffon used to sit with the engraving of Newton before him! But the brigands of the revolution envied this luxury to men of letters; they have pillaged this sanctuary of the Muses; the simplicity of which ought to have been its protection against their sacrilegious rapacity. There are no longer any vestiges of that furniture, which, notwithstanding its age, would be worth its weight in gold.

We could not be prevailed on to leave this cabinet; we imagined we saw Buffon in his grey silk night-cap, and in his red night-gown with white stripes; we thought that we heard him intermix with the familiar expressions, "C'est ça, tout ça, pardieu!" those profound and striking remarks which manifested his genius. We, however, quitted these gardens, to see the rest of the town, that we might proceed on our journey early the next morning. In descending, we passed before the column that M. de Buffon, the son, raised to the memory of his father. They have permitted the monument to remain, but have effaced the inscription which consecrated filial affection, as if the sentiments of nature had been an offenee to liberty. The following was the inscription:

> "Excelsæ Turri, humilis columna
> Parenti suo Filius Buffon. 1785."
> "To the high tower, the humble column,
> Raised by Buffon, junior, to his Father, 1785."

Honest Lapierre, considering his instructions were to go the extent of our desires to be gratified, did not omit any thing; he shewed us the house of Daubenton, the assiduous companion of the labours of Buffon, and took us up the same staircase which he ascended every morning at five o'clock, to go to the study that we had just visited.

We went to the church situated on very high ground; we saw not any of the monuments consecrated to the memory of Buffon; but in spite of the revolutionary rage which destroyed them, his name is unperishable. The humble tomb which was raised to the memory of his interesting wife, Mademoiselle de Saint Blin, is also no more to be seen. We arrived at the church by a flight of steps, but there is a way for carriages. Near it is a little esplanade, and an alley bordered with trees. It was here that

Buffon, after having assisted at high mass, which he regularly attended, walked in a coat richly covered with lace, escorted by his son, accompanied by Father Ignatius, and surrounded by peasants.

We should have liked much to see the forges, from which the greater part of the revenues of Buffon were derived; but we must have gone a league beyond the town. The sheepfold in which the illustrious Daubenton made his experiments for the improvement of wool, would have also deserved our attention; but there are no longer any animals kept there.

We next went over the little town of Montbard, which the Braine divides into two parts. The day had nearly closed, when we returned to our inn, where a new enjoyment awaited us. We had refused to lodge at the post-house, because it was too far from the town, and we were put down at the sign of the Crown, which hotel is kept by M. Gautier, an old cook of Buffon. I believe that if he had had less talents, we should have found an excellent kitchen; it was however very good. Madame Gautier, who had lived from her youth in the house of the great man, with her husband, was charmed to a degree of enthusiasm, when she saw me affected. She remained with us during our repast, waited on us with the greatest attention, related to us several particulars relative to Buffon, to his family, and the persons who visited Montbard, and told us the names of all the men of letters she remembered. As she learned that we were going to Dauphiné, she gave us a letter for M. de Faujas. We were desirous to see Mademoiselle Blesseau, the little *paysanne*, whom Buffon had made his housekeeper. She had studied his disposition for twenty years, and obtained over him such an ascendancy, that every one who wished to please Buffon was first obliged to be well with his housekeeper. Madame Necker showed a great regard for Mademoiselle Blesseau, and wrote to her a great many letters. Unfortunately she was not in the town. I recollected to have heard her spoken of in my youth, when she used to lead her master into the botanic garden, and I should have been glad to see her again. We could not learn what was become of Father Ignatius, who thought that he could make Buffon confess, and who sometimes waited on him at table.

The next morning at break of day, we took leave of that excellent woman Madame Gautier, to set out for Dijon. We were driven by the son of the post-master, and I pray Heaven, gentle reader, that you may never in your travels have such a guide; he was six hours completing his two posts and a half, and it was near eleven o'clock when we arrived at Villeneuve les Converts.

It is true that the way is as tedious as it is fatiguing; it is full of *ups and downs*, and the fields are overspread with stones, the vineyards widely scattered, and frequently are found enormous parts of rocks which seem to have torn the bosom of the earth. It is between Chauceaux, a village, the second post, and Saint Seine) that the source of the Seine is found in a place called Evergeraux. At a little distance from Chanceaux, it is only a small rivulet which we passed over, on a small stone bridge.

From Chanceaux we went to Saint Seigne, commonly called Saint Seine. This large town is situated in a deep valley, the descent to which is very sudden, and where the skill of the workmen who made the road, has constructed a number of turning paths, like a winding staircase. The church which belonged to a rich and celebrated abbey, is all that is remarkable. They were occupied in pulling down the ancient church of the Benedictines, even to the foundation.

Two large paintings in fresco yet cover the wall behind the choir of the abbey of Saint Seine. They are divided into a great number of small compartments, containing the whole history of St. Seigne. Each compartment has a part of it, and frequently there are inscriptions in Gothic characters on the scrolls; part of the writing and some of the painted figures are effaced. At the side of the choir are the remains of a tomb, that of *Guillaume de Vienne,* who was created abbot of Saint Seine, in 1375. At the right of the entrance to the other church, there is a fountain ornamented with a plate of cast iron, and on which is represented in bas-relief, the Samaritan woman conversing with Jesus Christ.

The road which we had to ascend on leaving St. Seine, is very steep and bad.

In this part of the country they cover the roofs of the houses with small slabs of calcareous stone, which are readily found in the fields. From its being proper for this purpose, it is named *pierre tegulaire,* or as the people of the country call it, *lame.* They have only to look for it in the fields, but they would have to send for tiles from a considerable distance. Their manner of roofing houses requires that the walls should be very solid, as well as the carpenter's work, to support the weight.

If the walls were not solid, at the end of two or three months they would begin to crack and bend; but a good roof constructed in this way, will last about six-and-thirty years.

The shelving of the mountain near the great road, will not admit the use of the plough; the country people are obliged to dig the ground. We saw on this side a great many little spots where the cultivators were employed in this work.

The little *lames* of stone with which they cover the roofs are also employed to make the walls which separate the inclosures in the most rustic fashion and without cement. They content themselves with placing them one on the other, and they take care that the highest shall be of the largest size, the small ones being placed in the middle. The high road has a wall of this kind, and there is also in the fields walls like them, which separate the lands of the different owners.

Before we arrived at Val Suzon, we had to descend a very long and steep declivity, on the one side large rocks, and on the other precipices, beyond which another mountain is seen almost entirely covered with rocks. The village of Val Suzon is formed of two clusters of houses situated in the bottom of the same valley, at a little distance one from another upon the borders of the Suzon, a small river that in the summer months is nearly dry, but which has a stream sufficient to turn some mills. It abounds with trout; the largest do not weigh more than half a pound, but are excellent. They are much estsemed at Val Suzon and are greatly in request at Dijon at the best tables.

On leaving Val Suzon we had to ascend the space of a league, but the road is good and kept well repaired: the side of the mountain is bordered with immense oaks, between which pines rear their heads. The appearance of this place is truly picturesque, and affords the traveller a rich recompence for his fatigue. While contemplating with pleasure so magnificent a scenery, we came to a less mountainous place; and, having passed Talant, a castle which the ancient dukes of Burgundy made their residence, soon after came in sight of Dijon, where we intended to remain a few days.

After our arrival at Dijon my first care at waking the next morning, was to visit Mr. Durande, Secretary to the Academy, and son of the physician of that name. I knew him in my youth. I had pursued the same course of botany with him under the celebrated Desfontaines. I was very desirous to see him. I was anxious also to embrace my friend M. Riouffe, prefect of the department, whose conversation is full of intelligence, and whose character is so amiable. They were neither of them at home, and a natural inclination directed my steps to the museum. I desired above all to see the respectable director, M. Desvoges, whom I knew by reputation, and from some letters which he had written to me.

The museum is in one of the wings of the National Palace, a sumptuous edifice, formerly called the palace of the dukes of Burgundy, and afterwards the King's Lodge. The states of Burgundy there held their assemblies, and voted each year a sum towards its embellishment. There remains no more of

the ancient palace of the dukes than a few chambers, and an old square tower, which was completed under the direction of Jean sans Peur: he had raised its height considerably at the time of his disputes with the Orleanois, to be able to see the plain country, and to prevent his being surprised. They show at the key stone of the vault the trowel, which that prince had chosen for his device, since the duke of Orleans, who caused him to be assassinated, had taken a knotty stick for his. In front of the palace is the Place Royale. It is a range of arches in a semi-circle. In the middle was the equestrian statue of Louis XIV. by Le Hongre. It has been demolished

M. Desvoges, director of the museum, is a man altogether worthy of his situation, both on account of his talents, and the services which he has done the arts. Dijon owes to him the foundation of the museum, the establishment of which he first proposed to the states of Burgundy, who approved his plan. The room for study is large and well calculated for the pupils to draw from engravings, busts, and models. The students were to the number of one hundred and fifty: formerly they received prizes, and such of them as obtained that honour were sent to Rome.

The bust of M. Desvoges is placed at the extremity of the study. There is inscribed on the pedestal, "Monument of gratitude and friendship, by the students of the school of Dijon, the artists and amateurs, to their master, their father, and friend."

The museum is composed of several rooms full of pictures. marble statues, and different curiosities. These rooms are open to the public every Sunday from twelve o'clock until two in winter, and from two until four in summer. Among the pictures we noticed the Death of St. Francis of Assise, by Augustin Carracci, a St. Jerome of Dominichino, a landscape of Gasper Poussin, several smaller pictures of the Flemish School, and several copies after the Italian. The most remarkable of them is that of Raphael's School of Athens, executed at Rome under the direction of Poussin The second room of pictures contains several implements of the middle age which belonged to the ancient dukes of Burgundy, such as ivory boxes from the toilette of a duchess, a purse, a scepter, a poignard, some knives and forks of their grand carvers, the cap and the cross of St. Renobert, and a ring of one of the Abbots of Citeaux

A particular cabinet of M. Desvoges contains a collection of casts in plaster of Paris from the most celebrated subjects of sculpture: the intent of these plasters is for study, and M Desvoges allows the use of them to his pupils.

The room which contains engravings is very light, and furnished with desks facing the windows, and drawers which hold

the port-folios. Several engravings adorn the walls. The number of the collection is forty thousand; there are some prints of Mark Antony, those of Poussin are not numerous.

Before we quitted the *Palais National*, we visited the interior of the square tower which is in the middle; it was formerly the kitchen of the prince of Condé. It is curious for the singular manner of its construction, the fire-places for roasting being all round the place, and the stoves in the middle, with a great funnel to let out the smoke, it is not however very convenient for the cooks, who are always between two fires. This kitchen, where were prepared the sumptuous repasts which a magnificent prince gave to his guests, at present serves for the preparation of soupe à la Rumford. We next went to see the botanic garden, which the benevolence of M. Legouz de Gerlan, an estimable and enlightened man, had given to the academy, burthened only with the expence of making botanical experiments. Since that time it has been at the disposal of the central school; at present it might be restored to the academy, but having lost the endowment, it has no longer the necessary funds to support it.

M. Legouz died in the year 1774, and was buried in the church of St. Magdalen. When this church was demolished in the course of the revolution, the bones of most of the persons buried there were carried to the adjoining cemetery: the members of the ancient academy requested that those of M. Legouz de Gerlan, should be removed to the botanic garden, of which he was the founder. This removal took place with a solemnity suitable to the occasion on a Sunday evening. A concourse of people, the members of the academy, and a military detachment, assisted and accompanied the procession. Three of the members delivered a discourse on the subject of the solemnity. Under the trees at the extremity of the great botanic garden, stands a black sarcophagus, raised on a base, which contains the remains of M. Legouz de Gerlan. In a room on the ground floor of the house which looks to the garden we read on a black marble in characters of gold, the following inscription. "The academy of Dijon to the kind Legouz, founder of the garden, who died in 1774." In front of this inscription, at the other end of the room, the bust of M. Legouz is placed on a pedestal on which we read

Contre les maux qui menacent ta vie,
Toi qui viens chercher des secours,
Vois, sous ces traits, le bienfaisant genie
Qui veille au salut detes jours.

In destroying one of the ancient towers of Dijon there were found fragments of tombs, of statues, and inscriptions. M. Legouz bought of the workmen these monuments which were near being dispersed, and had them set in the wall of a small garden, that served as an entrance to the buildings of the botanic gardens.

The most interesting monument is one which represents a waggon drawn by mules and loaded with corn, as if meant to be emptied into barges. There only remains a fragment upon which is written "*Nauta Araricus*," "*Mariner of the Saone*," the part which doubtless contained the vessel, and the name of this corn-merchant is lost. This town was in the time of Cæsar the magazine of Gaul, and he had his corn from thence during the war with the Helvetians.

CHAP. IX.

BAS-RELIEF AND INSCRIPTIONS IN THE HOUSE OF M. RICHARD DE VESVROTTES——SUPPOSED TRIUMPHAL MONUMENT OF BELLOVESUS——RE-DISCOVERY OF THE DIPTIC OF DIJON——PICTURES OF M. WOLFIUS——LIBRARY OF M. MARET—M. DURANDE'S CABINET OF NATURAL HISTORY—THE CHARTREUX—ARQUEBUSE-PARK.

MESSRS. DURAND and Leschevin conducted us to the house of M Richard de Vevrottes, son of M. Richard de Ruffey, formerly president of the Court of Exchequer for the province of Burgundy. The garden of this house may be considered as a small grove dedicated to the *Lapidary Muses*. The principal wall, under the shade of majestic chesnut-trees, presents to the view of the antiquary forty-two monuments, more or less preserved, which were found in the city of Dijon. In the middle there is a black marble tablet with the following inscription in letters of gold:

"HÆC VETERUM MONUMENTORUM FRAGMENTA E RUDERIBUS PRIMÆVÆ URBIS DIVIONENSIS JUXTA TEMPLUM DIVI STEPHANI FELICITER ERUTA AD PUBLICAM UTI-

LITATEM ET HORTORUM ORNAMENTUM ÆGIDIUS GERMANUS RICHARD DE RUFFEY IN SUPREMA RATIONUM BURGUNDIÆ CURIA PRÆSES EMERITUS SERVANDA CURAVIT ANNO M.DCC LXXXI.

Only one of these monuments has been published: it is the pretended Hunter of M. Legouz de Gerlan, who had it engraved from a drawing by M. Tillot, pl. xxi. but the collection of MSS. which the latter left to the Academy proves how inaccurate he was in his researches. This Hunter is evidently a *Diana succincta*, or Diana with her tunic tucked up. The characters that were formerly on the border of the stone, are now entirely effaced, and we cannot rely on the faithfulness of the copy given by M. Legouz.

The most curious of these monuments is a bas-relief placed under the inscription of M. de Ruffey: It represents a sacrifice: on the left is the sacrificer with a veil; a *tibicen* appears to be playing on the double flute: on the right the *popa* has the *secespita* in his girdle; and near him stands the ox that is to be killed. In the midst of the three figures there is a small altar with incense burning on it.

Several of the monuments are accompanied with inscriptions of which I copied the following:

SABINIANVS
MARCIANI
.... SABINVS
V. S.

In a niche is a woman in the Gallic costume; holding a basket of fruits in one hand: above is the following line,

D: M. MARTILLÆ BLANDI. FIL.

Around another figure with a veil we read,

D. M. VEBRONIS BRIG I FI.

Round two figures in a niche,

MASCvLVS .... ET SABINA VXOR.

In another niche we saw the figures of a man and woman with their right hands joined: the man holds a purse and goblet: the woman a scroll. The inscription is,

....VS. SASSONIS FIL. ET SABINA VXOR.

They have built into this wall several fragments of a beautiful frieze with the attributes of Bacchus; several other fragments represent figures in niches, the upper part of which are in the form of a shell. M. Antoine has given in the *Journal des Bâtimens et des Arts*, No. 110 and 112, some of these fragments separately in one plate; and in another he has formed by their union a kind of arched portico: because he thinks that these stones formed part of a triumphal monument erected to perpetuate the memory of the victories of Bellovesus in Etruria: but this opinion seems to be wholly inadmissible, as, in the time of Bellovesus there was no artist in Gaul capable of executing or even of conceiving the idea of such a monument.

M. Richard de Vesvrottes then shewed us the collection of curiosities and antiques formed by his father in a room adjoining his library. I here immediately recognised the Diptic of Dijon, which is engraved in Montfaucon's (Antiqu. expliq. t. 3. p. 240). It had formerly belonged to M. de Lamare, then to M. du Tilliot, from whose collection it was transferred to the cabinet of M. Richard de Ruffey. It was supposed to be lost. Since my visit to Dijon it has been deposited in the Museum.

This collection contains likewise several seals; some small figures, few of which are ancient; wooden combs, and one of lead, that were used in the churches, but without any inscription: and a garment of Bebe, the dwarf of the king of Poland.

M. Wolfius, an advocate in the city, possesses a considerable collection of pictures, among which we particularly noticed a curious ancient View of Paris, which gives us an idea of that city previous to the building of the pavilion of the Infanta, and whilst the Pont-neuf was still encumbered with shops.

M. Maret has a valuable library selected with much taste, containing a series of the works which have issued from the most celebrated modern presses. He likewise possesses several early specimens of the art of printing.

M. Durandes likewise possesses a good library, containing a great number of the best works on physics and medicine; to the study of which he has particularly devoted himself. He has a rich cabinet of minerals, and a splendid collection of shells and madrepores.

Having returned to the town-house we saw in the court 15 fragments of the antiquities which were found in digging under the walls of the Holy Chapel. These fragments are distinguished by a very good taste: and do not seem to have been executed posterior to the times of the Antonines. There are eight fragments of a frieze, with very pleasing ornaments, and four fragments of cornices. It is to be regretted that the administrators

did not continue the research. They likewise found a part of a beautiful sarcophagus, with Genius holding one side of the *titulus*:—and two mutilated figures, which seem to have represented persons of rank, one of them is holding a roll, and the other a small box, such as we find in other monuments of this country. The fifteenth is the most curious; it seems to be the inside of a house, in which five persons are employed in domestic functions: behind those in the upper part, are the goblets, which are observed in many of the Gallic and Roman monuments of this country.

Having finished our researches at Dijon, we prepared for our departure. The Chartreux would formerly have presented some objects for observation; for several of the dukes of Burgundy were buried in that convent: in particular, the tombs of Philip the Bold, the founder of the monastery, and of John the Fearless, and his duchess, used to attract the attention of strangers. These magnificent monuments are now destroyed, and nothing remains but a few scattered fragments and figures: the ploughshare has passed over a great part of the monastery which contained them!

We took a walk to the *Arquebuse*. This is a small house, with a pleasant garden planted in the English manner: formerly it was the place of exercise for the Cross-bow Company; at present it has been converted into a very agreeable rural house of entertainment. The ground-floor forms a covered gallery, where the company may retire in case of rain. Many fine shrubs and flowers are cultivated here: and at the extremity of the garden stands a tree whose trunk is at least seven feet in diameter. The house and garden were constructed and laid out at the expence of M. de Montigny, who placed in the gallery the busts of Jehannin Piron, Bouhier, la Monnoie, Buffon, and other celebrated Burgundians: but during the frenzy of the revolution they were broken to pieces, and nothing remains but the names written on the wall.

The Dijonese have several other public walks, especially the ramparts which encircle the city, and the course which leads to the park.

The park is at the distance of a quarter of a league from the city. It formerly belonged to the prince of Condé: the city of Dijon purchased it after the revolution, and made it a public promenade: it is laid out in regular straight walks from plans by Le Nostre; the river Ouche flows at one end of it, and forms the boundary.

CHAP. X.

DEPARTURE FROM DIJON—CÔTE D'OR—VINEYARDS—CHAMBERTIN—BROCHON—CLOS VOUGEOT—VOSNES—ROMANE—SAINT-GEORGE—LA TACHE—ABBEY OF CITEAUX—NUITS—BEAUNE; THE LIBRARY—THE HOSPITAL—ANECDOTE OF PIRON, THE POET—GOLD MEDALS.

WE left Dijon by the way through the suburb of the Ouche, at a little distance from the city we saw one of the sluices of the canal, which is to reach from Dijon to Saint Jean de Losne; but it is not yet finished, five sluices being still wanting. After having proceeded half a league, we saw rising on the right towards the south-west, the celebrated hill, over which Bacchus has spread a verdant and magnificent carpet. This hill well deserves the name of *Côte d'Or*, or Gold Coast, which has been given it on account of the excellence of its wines, and the riches they produce. We continued to enjoy this smiling view; and every point that presented itself, was a spot more or less celebrated for the excellence of its wine. After having passed Chenone and Marcenay, the wines of which are in high estimation, and before we arrived at Baraques, the first stage, we saw the vineyards of Chambertin, of which the English have so high an opinion. Soon after we perceived the vineyards of Morey and Chambolle. The name of Clos Vougeot, written in large characters, attracted our attention; this vine-land derives its name from the Vouge, which flows by at a little distance from it, over which we crossed by a small bridge; it formerly belonged to the monks of the Abbey of Citeaux; its extent is about 250 acres.

It has been purchased by M. M. Tourton and Ravel, two eminent merchants, who pay great attention to its culture and improvement. As several parts of the enclosure, the produce of which is of an inferior quality, have been replanted with large vines, a report has been spread that the present proprietors were more attentive to quantity than quality; but this calumny is wholly unfounded: it is true that the quantity of ground allotted to the culture of the vines is continually increasing. Formerly

it was not allowed to appropriate to this species of husbandry any lands, except such as were proper for it; but now, when the regulations relative to this point are no longer in force, they frequently plant vines in low grounds, even such as are subject to have water lying upon them, and possess none of the properties required for a vineyard. Those who buy the produce of such vineyards, may believe, or give out, that the wines of Burgundy have degenerated: but this is certainly not the case with respect to the good vineyards, and more particularly that of Vougeot, which is cultivated with more care than ever; the wine made there is sold in bottles, the price of which is six francs each. The proprietors have always 500,000 bottles in store. Some of the wine is twelve years old; but it will not keep beyond that age.

Formerly we should have made an excursion from the direct road for the purpose of visiting the celebrated Abbey of Citeaux, the abbot of which was head of the whole Cistertian Order, and as such exempt from all ecclesiastical jurisdiction, except that of the pope himself. It contained the tombs of all the dukes of Burgundy of the first race; but the monuments and the church itself have been scattered by the storm of the revolution.

The vineyard of Vougeot is that which enjoys the most extensive celebrity; but at a little distance from it, on the road to Nuits, lies that of Vosges, belonging to M. Besne, which well deserves an equal degree of reputation.

These names recal to mind the disputes which recur at every banquet amongst the Burgundians, relative to the superiority of the produce of the several vineyards: these debates frequently become very animated, and generally end in very considerable wagers. The judges appointed by the parties in such cases, never decide without a previous examination of the articles which gave rise to the process.

We soon arrived at the second stage, Nuits, a place celebrated on account of its vineyards, and the great trade carried on there with the gifts of Bacchus. The wines of the neighbourhood rose into great repute after the illness of Louis XIV. in 1680. That monarch having been obliged to undergo an operation for the fistula, his physicians ordered him to drink old wine of Nuits, as a restorative. The price of the article, which till then had been very moderate, was considerably increased, and large quantities are now exported. Nuits is a small town, situated at the foot of a hill called *Côte Nuitone*, on the bank of the Meuzin; planted with the excellent vines which have raised the reputation of the place, where every thing has an air of comfort and competence.

The opposite side of this rich tract of vine-land is covered with

forests, the wood of which is employed in smelting the ore of the iron mines, or sent as a supply of fuel to the capital.

The Côte d'Or formerly produced a considerable number of chesnuts, but it is a remarkable fact that this tree will not now thrive there. This tract of country ends at Vosnes; but the vineyards as far as Beaune continue to have the reputation of producing excellent wine.

As we did not intend to pursue the route to Chalons, we stopped in the suburbs of Beaune, and while dinner was preparing, took a walk into the town. The new gate by which we entered, is in a good style of architecture. We were desirous of seeing the public library, but had some difficulty in finding the librarian; at last however we met with him at a coffee-house: and he quitted his game of domino with the greatest complaisance; but we could perceive that some of his friends, displeased that strangers should interrupt him in so serious an occupation, followed him at a distance. The library is a handsome square hall, but does not contain any very important works.

The town, which is of an oval form, with handsome houses and wide streets, stands on a calcareous ground, about three leagues from the Saone; and its situation between Chalons, Dijon, and Autun, is well suited for inland trade. Of the castle nothing but ruins remain. The church of St. Peter is the handsomest; but the most remarkable edifice is the magnificent hospital, founded in 1443, by Nicholas Rollin, chancellor to Philip, duke of Burgundy, of whom Louis XI. of France used to say, "It is but an act of justice in him, who has made so many poor, to build a hospital to lodge them in." The court of this house presents some remains of the style of architecture called Gothic, which have a very picturesque effect. It does honor to the inhabitants of Beaune, that this asylum of sickness and misfortune is kept in a very good state of repair, and that they pride themselves upon it as an institution of great importance.

The animosity of the Athenians against the Thebans, was not greater than that of the inhabitants of Dijon against those of Beaune. The Dijonese will have it, that the very air of the country has a stupifying effect; and they vie with each other in ascribing the most ridiculous bulls and simplicities to the good folks of Beaune. The quarrel of Piron, the poet, with them, has not a little contributed to strengthen this opinion. *Genus irritabile vatum!* The knights of the cross-bow of Beaune, had gained the prize in 1715; Piron, who then resided in Dijon, his native city, held them up to ridicule in a burlesque ode. Fifteen months after, the Beaunese gave back the prize. Piron's friends begged him not to go to Beaune; but he paid no regard to their advice, and his temerity had like to have cost him

dear, as he informs us himself in his *Voyage de Beaune*. His antagonists began the attack with insults and threats. Piron kept up a running fire of bon-mots, puns, and epigrams. His friends endeavoured to carry him off the field of battle: but he resisted, exclaiming

> Allez; je ne crains pas leur impuissant courroux;
> Et quand je serois seul, je les bâterois tous!

Having met with an ass in one of the streets, he affixed to the long ears of the beast the green cockade of the Beaunese Bowmen, repeating aloud their motto, *Marche au but*.

This roused their fury against him to the highest pitch. On the following day, he had the imprudence to go to the play-house, and seat himself in the pit: all the young men immediately ranged themselves on the stage and overwhelmed him with vollies of opprobrious language. At length, however, the actors with much difficulty were proceeding with the play, when a young Beaunese, disgusted with the uproar, exclaimed "Silence! gentlemen; 'tis impossible to hear any thing."—" 'Tis not however for want of ears!" replied Piron. His enemies now breathing the most deadly vengeance, pursued the poet with sticks and swords through the streets, and he probably would have fallen a victim to their rage, if a good-natured citizen had not permitted him to take refuge in his house. Ever after Piron vented his spleen against the Beaunese in a great number of epigrams, and his townsmen the Dijoneses have not failed to imitate him. All the puns or play upon words to which the comparisons of a sot with an ass can give rise to, have been employed for this purpose by them to satiety, in a manner more or less ingenious.

Is there any real foundation for this opinion of the excessive simplicity of the inhabitants of Beaunese. I must own, that having heard so much of it, and read the hundreds of naivetés and blunders told of them, it was difficult to divest myself of prejudice; and during the time we were in the town, there occurred nothing calculated entirely to do it away: it seemed to us as if no one gave a proper answer to the questions put to them. But our stay was too short to enable us to form a correct judgment; and we must not follow the example of a certain English traveller, who wrote in his journal, that at Blois all the women are carrotty and peevish, though he had seen only the hostess of the inn where he put up.

But even admitting that the Beaunese in general have little wit, and a sluggish imagination, the rule is not without exception; and they may cite with pride the names of some very

eminent men to whom their town has given birth—and particularly senator Menge, to whom we owe so many discoveries in physic, chemistry, and geometry.

CHAP. XI.

CROSS ROAD TO AUTUN---POMARD--VOLNAY--MEURSAULT ---QUARRIES OF ST. ROMAIN—CASTLE OF ROCHEPOT—REFLECTIONS ON THE DESTRUCTION OF ANCIENT MONUMENTS—NOLAY—CUSSY—ROMAN COLUMN—AUVENET; PETRIFACTIONS—VALLEY OF VAUCHIGNON—EPINAC—GLASS-MANUFACTORY.

INSTEAD of proceeding by the usual route to Chalons, we now turned off by a cross road to Autun, and after leaving Beaune, passed by the celebrated vineyards of Pomard, Volnay, and Meursault, the white wines of which is in high repute, especially on account of their mixing with the red without changing their colour, though it be not made of black grapes like the vines of Champagne. Soon after we saw Saint-Romain, whose quarries supply marble for the embellishment of houses and churches throughout Burgundy.

Farther on we perceived on an eminence to the right the picturesque ruins of the ancient castle of Rochepot. The rock on which it was built is perpendicular, and is only accessible on one side: it was formerly called Roche Nolay. The castle was erected in the 13th century, by Alexander of Burgundy, René Pot, after whom it was named, strengthened it with additional fortifications. As we were passing it, the pick-axe and the hammer were working the downfall of this monument of the middle ages.

If these vandals reflected how many centuries are required to encrust buildings with the varnish of antiquity, which attracts attention and respect, they would set some bounds to the rage for destroying. The residences of the Paladins, the monuments of the piety of our forefathers, the ancient castles and churches, give a charm of variety to the landscape, are an object of distraction and interesting recollection to the traveller, and form a striking contrast with the edifices built according to the rules

of modern architecture. These places, hallowed by tradition, recall the remembrance of deeds of the days of yore. I well know, that all considerations must give way to public safety and convenience, and that the owner of an ancient castle has a right to pull it down for the purpose of substituting in its place a more commodious modern dwelling: but in most cases they seem to destroy merely for the sake of destroying, or only for the materials; which in a country so well supplied with stone as Burgundy, will hardly be worth the expence which the demolition costs. It is not for the purpose of building on their sites, but solely for the sake of the materials, that the castles of Montfort and Rochepot, which had so picturesque an effect, have been demolished.

I allow that nothing should be expended for the purpose of reparing the castles and churches which are falling to decay: but surely there is beauty and grandeur even in ruins. A man to whose soul they do not speak, should never view a landscape. The English think differently from us in respect to their ancient abbeys. The dwellings of their ancestors are preserved with religious veneration: they are pleased with the romantic air which gothic edifices give to the landscape: they describe them with care; and transmit in engravings the remembrance of their various states. Were not the numerous steeples and lofty towers, rising majestically to the skies and directing from afar the weary traveller to a place of rest, an ornament to our cities? Deprived of them, the view becomes flat and monotonous. It is to be wished that government would lay some restraint on these devastations; and then no one should be allowed to pull down an old building without having submitted his wishes to the prefect of the department, who might have power to order them to be preserved if he judged it expedient. If some such measure be not adopted, it is to be feared that most of the monuments that have been witnesses to the antiquity of the country, will ere long disappear in France.

We arrived at Nolay towards the close of day. May heaven preserve every honest traveller from the misfortune to taking up his abode with mine host of the White Horse, whose behaviour is as rude as his house is dirty and his fare disgusting. We begged of him to let us have in the morning a carriage to take us to the column of Cussy: but he absolutely refused us his chaise which stood in the shed; and we could not even obtain saddles for the horses we had brought with us. As we had struck into this cursed cross-road on purpose to see the column, we had no choice left but to give up the object of our excursion, or to proceed to the spot on foot.

At four in the morning we accordingly set out with a guide;

and having walked three hours over a stony and fatiguing road, arrived at the village of Ivri, close to the castle of Cornabœuf. Near this place is a quarry of calcareous stone, which contains, besides the common petrifactions, some very large nautili. At the distance of a league is the village of Grammont, where the enormous petrified fish, now deposited in the Museum of Natural History at Paris, was found. The environs present a very picturesque view: it is a delightful valley which was near half illumined by the rays of the sun: a flock of sheep collected in the low ground, and another scattered over the acclivity of the mountain, added to the charms of this sublime landscape. At last we perceived the object for which we had undertaken the walk, and the pleasure of seeing this beautiful monument amply repaid us for our trouble and fatigue.

This column has frequently been described: but the figures which accompany these descriptions are all defective, being mostly copied from the designs published by Montfaucon, which are very far from being exact. The figure of it in the "Voyage pittoresque de la France," conveys an altogether false idea of it, both with respect to the details and proportions: M. Pasumot had drawn and engraved a view of it with the greatest care.

This column stands in the middle of the fields, in a hollow, and surrounded with mountains on every side; and is visible only at a very small distance, after leaving the village of Cussy. The pedestal is composed of three layers, each of which consists of only one block of stone. The base forms a kind of square, with the angles cut off, and a semicircular incision is cut in each of the principal faces. The cornice over it consists of only one piece. Over the base is placed a kind of octagonal altar, which presents on each of its sides the figure of a god. This altar is formed of two pieces: but the plinth which supports it, and the cornice over it, consist each of only one block of stone. Above it rises the shaft of the column. The lowest part of it is ornamented with rhomboidial compartments, in which is a rosette, such as we see in some cielings: the upper part is decorated with scale-shaped sculpture. The shaft consists of four pieces. The top is wanting. The whole colum is composed of only twelve pieces; and it is evident, that the enormous size of the blocks, each of which forms a complete layer, has prevented it from being dilapidated. It principally, however, owes its preservation to the spirit of the inhabitants. A lord of the village had formed the project of taking it down and rebuilding it on the great road to Lyons: but the villagers having made earnest application against it, the project was dropped. They call this monument *their pillar*, and have added it to the name of their village, which they call Cussy-la-Colonne.

M. Lejeune, mayor of Cussy, having conducted us to his house, we saw in the court a large fragment of stone, forming more than the half of a very large disc, which he supposed had formerly served as a corona to the pillar I have just been describing; and on examining it, we were inclined to concur in opinion with him. On the edge of the remaining part of this disc, there are six elevations very like the horns which we find in some of the square altars of antiquity. In the center rises a small circular protuberance; the surface is plain and rudely worked; below each horn there is a small excavation resembling a groove or gutter; towards the center the thickness is greater than on the edges; and its diameter is seven feet. It would seem that these horns corresponded with the different faces of the base; on which account their distance is unequal, being from the middle of one horn to the middle of the other alternately two feet, and two feet six inches. The edge of the disc is six inches in thickness, and thirteen where the horns are placed.

That we might be the better able to examine this fragment, we caused it to be lifted up by some labourers. These good people, pleased with the attention paid by us to a monument, on which they seemed to pride themselves, would not take any pay for their trouble, and with difficulty were induced to accept a trifling drink-money.

Before we took leave of M. Lejeune, he shewed us three Gallic sepulchral stones, built into the wall of his house. The figure sculptured on one of them holds a goblet of the kind we saw on several bas-reliefs at Dijon.

Being told of a curious capital of a column, ornamented with figures, at the farm of Auvenet, from Cussy, we walked about a league thither by way of Ivry. The whole declivity is covered with a prodigious quantity of the fragments of asterites and medusæ; and sometimes whole asterites are found. These petrifactions lie on a base of yellowish marble, which is susceptible of a good polish.—M. Guillemardin, the proprietor of the farm, gave us a hospitable reception, and conducted us to a field, where we found the capital, used as the cover of a well, having been hollowed in the middle, to fit it for that purpose. The people of the farm call it on that account, the Lamp; a name derived from a traditionary supposition that the column of Cussy had been a light-house. But would it not have been absurd to erect it in the bottom of a valley? This capital is of the Corinthian, or composite Order, twenty-one inches in height, and the breadth three feet and a half on the upper, and two feet ten inches on the under part. Each face is ornamented with a head: one of them represents a beardless Faun, with long ears; another an old Silenus, with a beard; and the third a Sun, encircled with rays;

but the fourth is quite defaced. The remainder of each face is covered with the leaves of the acanthus. It is probable that this capital belonged to the column of Cussy, and that the stone we had before seen in the court of the Mayor's house, served as the corona; so that the horns were turned upwards. The small elevation in the center of the disc, might in that case be intended for fixing the urn, if, as it is believed, this column was a sepulchral monument.

The eight figures which adorn the column, stand in niches of very little depth, and with the top alternately arched and pointed. The first figure represents Hercules, with his club, and the skin of the Nemean Lion. The second is that of a captive; he has a beard, and is dressed in the Gallic *sagum*: the head is uncovered, and the hands are bound together. In the third niche stands Minerva with a helmet on her head; near her an owl is perched on a stick; and at her feet the trunk of a tree, with the upper part cut off; probably the trunk of an olive, which would be a happy symbol of the sweets and security of peace, which had succeeded the horrors and devastations of war. Minerva raises her right hand to her head; an attitude of reflection well suited to the Goddess of Wisdom. The order of these figures may indicate, that the barbarian chief in the middle, was overcome by the valour and prudence of the general, to whose memory the column had been erected.

The fourth niche is occupied by Juno; this Goddess, who presided over the nuptial union, has her head covered with the matronal veil: in her left hand she holds the pure spear, that is, a spear without the iron point, the ensign of power: in her right hand is the patera, the symbol of the worship paid to her; and at her feet we see her favourite bird, the peacock. The mighty sovereign of Olympus, stands next to his august queen, naked, and his mantle lying on his thigh; he is bearded, and holds the spear in his right hand, the manner in which that god in general is represented.

On the left of Jupiter we see Ganymede, with a Phrygian bonnet on his head, feeding the eagle of his master with ambrosia, out of a patera. It may appear extraordinary to find Jupiter placed betwixt Juno and Ganymede; but this is not the sole example of that curious association, which I have met with on other monuments.

The seventh figure is now so much mutilated, that it is difficult to determine what it represented. I conjecture that it was Bacchus, and that the animal at his foot is his favourite panther.

A Nymph, holding in her right hand an oar, and in her left urn with water flowing out of it, occupies the eighth niche.

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hen I saw it, however, I could not distinguish any of these attributes which I find in the drawing made of it thirty years ago, by M. Pasumot, in whose well-known accuracy and attention, however, the greatest confidence may be placed. From the state in which I saw it, I should have supposed it to be a Venus, mistaking for a veil the water flowing out of the urn. But from the copy of M. Pasumot, it may be concluded that it was meant as the representation of the divinity of some navigable river, probably the Saone.

There has been various opinions relative to the purpose for which this column was erected. Lempereur supposed it to be the tomb of a Gallic prince. Thomassinand Germain look upon it as a triumphal pillar in honour of the victory gained by Julius Cæsar, over Helvetians near Arnay. According to Moreau de Mautour, it was erected to the emperor Claudius. Montfaucon thinks that it is a religious monument of some gallic nation, and that it ought to be classed among the eeloginal temples of these people. M. Prunelle, a young gentleman who joins to a profound study of medicine, a very extensive acquaintance with several parts of ancient literature, is of opinion that it is a memorial of the victory gained by the troops of Maximian over the Bagaud.

It is certain that the column could not have been erected by the Gauls, and that the style of architecture is that which prevailed in the reign of Dioclesian: for it was during the period that elapsed between the reigns of Aurelian till after that of Constantine, that the Roman architects over-charged the shafts of columns with ornaments, as is the case with respect to that of Cussy. Besides some coins of Antoninus Pius have been found under it.

That this column was a triumphal monument, is proved by the figure of a captive in chains. Moreau de Mautour maintains that it is some Gaulish Divinity, who was usually so represented: but he has not adduced sufficient proof in support of his opinion. The captive has not indeed the bonnet with the top bent back, by which the Armenian, Dacian, Parthian, and other captives are distinguished on the columns of Trajon and Antoninus, and the arch of Siptimius: but he is dressed in the *sagum* and *braccæ* of the Gauls.

The conjecture of M. Prunelle is ingenious, and he supports it with great ability and erudition. He has given a history of the Bagaudæ, who were a banditti subsisting in Gaul, by robbery and pillage. They were destroyed under the reign of Maximian, and M. Prunelle is of opinion that the Ædui erected this column on the field of battle in honour of the emperor. and that

he is allegorically represented under the figure of Hercules, whose name he assumed, as we learn from medals and inscriptions.

I willingly adopt part of this conjecture; but cannot admit the whole of it. The column was erected for the purpose of perpetuating the memory of a victory gained here, about the period of the reign of Dioclesian and Maximian: but then it appears probable to me that it was dedicated to the Roman general, who had purchased the victory with his life. The large quantity of human bones with which the plain of Cussy is covered, prove that it had been the scene of a great battle. The captive indicates the nation, or, if we admit the opinion of M. Prunelle, the roving horde of the Bagaudæ, which was defeated by the strength and prudence of the general. All the protecting deities of Roman empire, and the river which washes the country of the Ædui, seem, by their presence, to participate in this signal victory.

When the column was entire, it may be presumed from the description of it given above, that an urn stood at top. But the discovery of the urn is not absolutely necessary to prove that the column was a funeral monument: the custom of burning the dead body, was confined after the reign of the Antonines to only a small number of individuals; and the urn may have been thrown down by the effects of time, or carried away by the hand of the spoiler. According to an account which I read in the Archives of the commune of Cussy, the remains of human bodies were found round the column, placed in such a manner that the sculls touched its base: these were no doubt the bodies of the principal officers who had fallen in the battle.

Having collected all the information we could obtain relative to the column, we left Auvenet; and being much fatigued with our long walk, were conducted to some distance in a cart drawn by two oxen, the driver of which was continually repeating the graceful names of *Mira* and *Griveau*. But we soon quitted this tediously slow equipage and descended by a very steep path into a vale called Vauchignon. This country is extremely beautiful and picturesque; over our heads hung an enormous rock, which was so very slightly attached to the mountain, that it will probably be hurled down by the first storm that falls upon it.

The water of a spring called La Cusane or Causanne, rushes with such noise out of a grotto called La Tournée, that on approaching within thirty paces of it we heard a sound like the faint rumbling of very distant thunder. Travellers sometimes enter the cavern, but this can only be done by creeping upon hands and feet: several have engraved their names on the rock. The

whole of the vale is bordered with rocks on each side; and near the grotto there is a cascade, forming a beautiful sheet of water the fall of which has hollowed out a bason of from 12 to 15 feet in diameter. The small streamlet pursues its course through the middle of the vale, and turns more than forty mills.

Having dined at the village of Nolay, we set out for Autun: but were tempted to go a little out of the direct road to see the glass-manufactory of Epinac, belonging to M. Moser and Co. and situated very near the old castle of Epinac. They make here from 1800 to 2000 glass bottles a day, which find a ready vent in the wine-districts of Burgundy. The oil which is burnt here comes from Saizy, and emits a very strong sulphureous odour. Two fifths of fine are mixed with three of coarse sand, and a quintal of salt is added to eighteen of the mixture; and before these materials are put into the melting-pot, they are placed about ten hours in an annealing-oven. At the entrance of the works, machinery moved by water, pounds the broken crucibles for the purpose of being employed in the constructing of the furnaces.

We expected to obtain a good deal more information from one of the overseers, who shewed us the manufactory: but M. Leschevin having remained a considerable time with him in the subterraneous gallery which serves to keep up a current of air towards the furnace, the man, on seeing him bear without seeming inconvenience, a very great degree of heat, began to suspect him to be a glass-maker who wished to steal his secrets; after which it was impossible to get another word out of him.

Near Epinac ends the department of the Côte-d'Or. We pursued our journey through that of Saone and Loire, and arrived at Autun about sun-set.

CHAP. XII.

AUTUN—ROMAN CAUSEWAYS—AMPHITHEATRE—TAUROMACHIA—DESTRUCTIVE MANIA OF THE AUTUNESE—VANDALISM—ROBBERS OF STONE—ANCIENT WALLS—TEMPLE OF JANUS—GENETOISE TOWER—TEMPLE OF PLUTO—GATE OF ARROUX—GATE AND CHURCH OF ST. ANDREW—PYRAMID OF COUHARD—TEMPLE OF APOLLO.

WE are now then in the celebrated city of Bibracte, the ancient capital of the Ædui, whom Pomponius Mela calls the most illustrious of the Celts, and who had always enjoyed a very great authority in Gaul. Cæsar taking advantage of their hatred to the Allobroges and Arverni, had the address to draw them over to his side and rewarded their attachment with the title of brethren and allies of the Roman people. They were afterwards first admitted into the senate, and it is a curious fact that till 1789 the citizens of Autun and Rome respectively enjoyed the freedom of both cities. The territory of the Ædui was situated betwixt the Liger and Arar (the Loire and Saone,) which comprized a great part of Burgundy and Nivernois, and they exercised authority over several people whom Cæsar calls their clients. Out of flattery to Augustus, they changed the name of their capital into Augustodunum, from which the modern one has been formed by contraction.

Autun is situated on the side of a steep hill near the Arroux, at the foot of three high mountains, which cover it on the south and east. One of these mountains is still called Montjeu (Mons Jovis, the mountain of Jupiter), the name of the second is Montdiu, which is supposed to be derived from Mons Druidarum, and to have been the residence of the ancient Druids: the third is the highest, it is called Mont Cenis, and, like Mont Cenis of the Alps, has a pond on its summit, which furnishes the inhabitants of the city with an abundant supply of limpid water.

Before we proceeded to take a view of the town, we waited upon M. Augustus Creuzé, then sub prefect, to whose pen we

are indebted for several elegant and pleasing productions: he had the goodness to accompany us in our walks to examine the principal remains of antiquity.

In one of the streets of Autun there still exist immense blocks of granite, which formerly was the base of the ancient Roman causeway. But as the superstratum no longer covers them, this pavement is very dangerous and difficult for horses. Several Roman ways centered in Autun, and vestiges of them are still visible.

To judge from the plates published for some few years back, of the Amphitheatre of Autun, we might suppose that it still existed almost entire and might rival the magnificent structures of the same kind at Arles and Nîmes: this was owing to the authors having copied Montfaucon. Now however, there are no vestiges of it left—not even the insignificant ruins engraved in the *Voyage pittoresque de France*. It would seem as if the Autunese had always entertained sentiments of hatred against the monuments that adorned their city: none of them seems to have any regard for them; on the contrary they shew as much zeal in destroying, as others would for their preservation. The walls of the Amphitheatre have long been and still are looked upon merely as a kind of quarry. In 1762, the stones were employed for building of the Seminary. In 1704, the municipal officers granted the right of pasturage on the site of the Amphitheatre, and the right has lately been renewed; but this is no longer attended with any inconvenience, as the monument is now entirely covered with earth. So late as 1788, a considerable quantity of stones were taken from the walls and the Amphitheatre, for repairing the church of St. Martin; so that nothing remains but some of the lower vaults under ground. And yet we blush not to accuse the Turks of gross ignorance, and call the Mussulmans barbarians, because they destroy ancient edifices for the purpose of employing the materials in building their mosches!

It is supposed that the Naumachia was in the fields lying lower than the site of the amphitheatre. In the environs there still exist some remains of the aqueduct which conveyed water to it.

From the information which we received from M. Chapet, manager of the glass-house at Creuson, it may be presumed that the amphitheatre was built in the reign of Vespasian. He found in the body of the ruins a medal of that emperor, which he deposited with the mortar adhering to it, in the collection of medals belonging to the College of Autun. During the revolution, however, this medal, as well as the other in that collection, were lost.

The authors of the *Voyage Pittoresque de la France*, have given a plate of the remains of a theatre, which they say is near the amphitheatre, and the seats of which still existed; but we were not able to discover a single vestige of it.

The ancient walls formed a vast enclosure, and were protected by forty towers. These walls, of which we found only a few traces, were built of granite, and time had so united the cement with the stones, that the whole formed a solid, hard mass. The outside was covered with small stones so exactly joined. that in the parts that have been preserved, the surface is still quite smooth. 'Tis not then the hand of time, nor the rage of barbarians, that have destroyed them, but that mania which impels the Autunese to overturn every thing. The city however, prosecutes such as are detected in stealing stones from the ancient monuments: we saw a man who had been fined twenty francs for that crime. But the preservation of these monuments is not the object they have in view; the right of destroying them belongs only to the city; it is a vandalism which the municipality reserves exclusively to itself.

At some distance beyond the bounds of Autun, on the side of the gate of the Arroux, and beyond the rivulet of the same name, stands a considerable ruin, which the inhabitants call the Temple of Janus; for which however, no reason can be given but its square shape. The bounds of the building are marked by the ruins of walls rising above the ground; but only the south and west sides are standing. They are built of granite, and the cement is become almost as hard as the stone. The outside faces are fifty-two feet in extent, and the interior thirty-nine. The walls are sixty-five feet in height.

In the lower part of the south wall there is an opening like a gate, and on each side of it in the interior of the temple, a niche.

The west wall has two gates, in the middle between which there is a large niche.

There still exists a part of the north wall where it joins the west one; and here we see a remnant of the first niche, from which it would appear that this was similar to the opposite side.

It may therefore be concluded that the principal entrance of this edifice was on the east side, which has been destroyed to within a very small distance of the ground; and stones were there found which belonged to the flight of steps for ascending into the temple. There can be no doubt however, that there was a lateral door towards the south, and another towards the north. The statue of the god was probably placed in the large niche, opposite to the principal gate, and between the two doors of communication with the dwellings of the priests, which must have

been situated to the west of the temple. An observation made by M. Devoucou, secretary to to the sub-prefecture, contributes to strengthen the probability of this latter conjecture: he assured us that a considerable number of fragments of marble were found on this, but far less on the three other sides.

It is remarkable that the two large openings, or gates, have externally on each side a half-niche, which it is evident had been made at the time the wall was built.

Over the gates, about what may be called the first story, there are in each wall three windows, shaped like an inverted pyramid; they are very wide on the inside, but externally very narrow. There are likewise several rows of square holes, which seem to have served for fastening the posts of the scaffolding.

Close to this supposed Temple of Janus, there stood a, modern building, on the ruins of a more ancient edifice. The Autunese called it the *Genetoise;* a word derived from Janitertus. It has been supposed that this was the site of the habitations of the priests. A view of this small edifice has been given in the " Voyage Pittoresque de la France;" but when we visited the spot, we could not find a single vestige of it remaining.

And the same fate seems to await the ruins of the Temple of Janus. The municipality, instead of keeping possession of the field on which it was built, has either sold, let, or neglected to purchase it. The farmer who owns it complains, that the heap of rubbish attracts the curious, who trample down the corn; for not even a foot-path to it has been reserved. He has an additional motive for desiring its removal, as the site would enlarge the arable part of the farm; and accordingly he contributes all in his power towards accelerating its complete destruction; and no one seems to care whether it be preserved or not.

They had begun to dig in search of antiquities in the inside of the temple: but these researches were soon abandoned, under the pretext that there was danger of weakening the foundation, and throwing down the walls. It is to be wished that the work were resumed with precaution, and continued with assiduity here, as well as in the Circus and the Amphitheatre: the city might be obliged to defray the expence, as a kind of expiation for the barbarity with which it has hitherto treated these monuments.

The river Arroux is of considerable breadth, but not deep enough for navigation till two leagues below Autun. The last bishop of the city, whilst president of the States of Burgundy, had proposed to render it navigable, by deepening the bed; and preparations were making to begin the work, when the revolution put a stop to it. The Academical Society lately commissioned M. Devoucou, one of their members, to draw up a memorial on

the subject; but it appears, that the execution of the project would be attended with considerable difficulty, because Autun has not many manufactures or other articles, to be exported, and the consumption of the place cannot give rise to any considerable importations.

From the banks of the Arroux, there is a good view of the whole city, which rises on the hill in the form of an amphitheatre. We pursued our walk down the river, to the bridge, which, together with the ancient gate, has a very picturesque effect. At the extremity of the bridge there was a ruin, which the Autunese decorated with the high-sounding title of the Temple of Pluto, on account of its circular form, which, however, would rather have indicated it to be a temple of Vesta. perhaps it was only a tower. During the troubles of the Ligue, it was converted into a redoubt.

Near it stood another round edifice, which was called the Temple of Proserpine; probably for no other reason but its being in the neighbourhood of the pretended Temple of Pluto. The floods of the Arroux have entirely demolished it.

The Gate of the Arroux, called likewise the Gate of Sens, is undoubtedly the most beautiful remain of antiquity in Autun. It is nine toises and a half in breadth, by eight and a half in height, and consists of two large arcades for the passage of carriages, and two smaller ones for pedestrians. A magnificent entablature crowns the four arcades, and above it rises a kind of gallery, formerly composed of ten arcades, but of which only seven remain. The range of arcades on the side towards the city, are entirely destroyed. The small columns of the Corinthian Order, which separate these arcades, are fluted with the greatest exactness. It has been supposed that this gallery served as a place to station the musicians in, at the entry of princes, and on other such solemn occasions, but this opinion does not seem to rest on any probable authority.

We particularly admired the richness of the grand Entablature; the eaves and moulding are covered with ornaments distinguished by the most delicate lightness of workmanship; the capitals are in the best style. The solidity of the construction is no less remarkable than the elegant style of the architecture: though the stones are put together without cement, the joints are so close that it is impossible to insert the blade of a knife between them; and the arches, notwithstanding the enormous weight of the superincumbent gallery, stand firm merely in consequence of the form given to the stones with which they are constructed. This beautiful monument has more to dread from the gross thoughtlessness of the inhabitants, than from the ravages of time. In 1794, they planted over this gate, in the center of the

gallery with which it is crowned, a tree of liberty. No care is taken to trim the stones, so that the mosses and lichens attach themselves thereto, and the cheiranthus, the valerian, and the wall barley-grass, find sufficient soil to vegetate; and it is to be feared that the roots of these plants will at length disjoint the stones and disfigure and injure the edifice.

We next went to the gate of St. Andrew, which is likewise called the Gate of Langres. It is two toises in breadth, and bears a considerable resemblance to the one I have just been describing, having likewise two large arches for the passage of carriages, and two small ones for foot-passengers. The gallery, or arcades, on the top, remains not only on the side facing the country, but likewise towards the city. Some of the Ionic pilasters still exist. It is astonishing how walls which are not eighteen inches in thickness, separated about ten feet, and constructed without cement, could have endured so many centuries, without a single stone being rent by the effects of frost or a false position; and this may be adduced as an additional proof of the great care of the ancients in the selection of the materials, and in the erection of their edifices. The vault of this gate is fallen down, and only the walls of the two faces remain. To the right, on entering the city, stands the church of St. Andrew, which considerably extends beyond the gate on each side: the postern adjoining it even served for an entrance into the vestry.

As these gates do not furnish the Autunese with any considerable masses of stone, they have not destroyed them; but though fortunately, for want of sufficient temptation, they may have suffered them to subsist, no measures seem to have been taken to preserve or repair them.

We finished our visit to the ancient edifices at "the Stone of Couhard," close to a village of that name, at a very small distance from Autun. This is an enormous mass composed of small square pieces of granite brought from the neighbouring mountains. It stands on a mound of earth, which likewise appears to have been raised by the hands of men; and, though now only a confused heap, without proportions, which the inhabitants and the municipality consider merely as a stock of building materials, seems to have had a pyramidal form, not unlike that of the monument near Rome, which is called the Pyramid of Celsus. The Abbé Jeannin caused workmen to dig into this monument in an horizontal direction; but the interior was found to be a solid mass of stones.

About two years ago, M. Devoucou caused an opening to be made across the first layer of the pyramid; but nothing was found in consequence of his researches; and he thence concludes that it was not a funeral monument, without, however, adopting

the opinion of those who suppose it to have been a pharos, or beacon. But it is probable that the body would not be deposited immediately under the pyramid, but under the *tumulus*, or mound of earth. It has been pretended that it was the tomb of Divitiacus, a celebrated Æduan, whose name is mentioned several times in Cæsar's Commentaries; but this conjecture is not even supported by probability.

Near this pyramid is the "Field of Urns," so called because large vases, supposed to be funeral urns, have been found there: but it may be objected that at the time when Autun was a flourishing Roman city, the custom of burning the bodies of the dead had been abolished. M. Chapet, director of the glass-manufactory at Creusot, who had seen several of these urns, told me, that they had the shape and dimensions of large *amphoræ*. Perhaps then there may have been wine-cellars near this place.

Very near the field of urns lies the "Champ des Tombeaux," where christian tombs have been found. Several of them have been removed into the gardens of the city and environs.

On this side of the city there are a very great number of mills.

Though it grew late, and we were much fatigued with our long ramble, we could not refuse a few moments of attention to a wall about four feet in thickness, composed of different layers of brick and granite, which still exists in the garden behind the *Laurier-vert* inn; and which tradition, though without any plausible reason, declares to be the remains of a temple of Apollo. The cement which binds the layers is distinguished by an extreme degree of hardness.

In the evening we returned by the gate of St. Andrew. In the morning we had noticed in a neighbouring field, bricks that formed a regular bed, and fragments of cement covered with fresco paintings: we were in hopes of discovering a mosaic pavement, but saw only vestiges of a large Roman chamber-flooring, made with very hard mortar, in the manner described by Vitruvius.

M. Tagot, a farmer, told us, that in ploughing his field on the site of the amphitheatre, he had found a fragment of marble which he showed us: we could only make out the letters AEL. M. It is now built into his chimney. Under it lay a skeleton, which was removed to the college, and pronounced to be a *tapir*: M. Tagot however assured us, that this pretended tapir had the hoof of an ass; and M. Chapet, who had seen it, is persuaded that it is the skeleton of a horse: which is extremely probable.

CHAP. XIII.

THE CASTLE—CHURCH OF ST. NAZAIRE—THE CATHEDRAL—ZODIAC—CAPITALS—FOUNTAIN—FIELD OF ST. LADRE—STEEPLE—LIBRARY OF THE CHAPTER—MANUSCRIPTS—VARIOUS CURIOSITIES—DIPTICS—INSCRIPTIONS—ANCIENT GEOGRAPHICAL MONUMENTS—DESTRUCTION OF MONUMENTS—MEANS TO PREVENT IT—TRADE AND MANUFACTURES—MINERALOGY.

OUR friend M. Leschevin wishing to make a mineralogical excursion among the mountains which surround Autun, he set out at break of day with Dr. Ballard, junior, who kindly offered to accompany him as his guide. As we had several things yet to see, we made the best use of our time to finish our observations.

The city is divided into three parts. The higher is that called the *Castle*, and containing the two cathedrals. The ancient one dedicated to St. Nazarius, has not been finished: it is built over the subterraneous church of St. John of the Grotto, which is supposed to have been a catacomb.

The new cathedral was formerly the chapel of the dukes of Burgundy. The lateral gate on the side facing the hotel of the sub-prefecture, is of very modern construction: but is remarkable for four columns, each of different and very singular workmanship, which have been preserved in it. One of these columns is sculptured throughout its whole length with pine-cones: on one half of the shaft the cones point upwards, and on the other the point is directed downwards; and the two parts are separated by a groove. Another is ornamented with ribands interlaced, and studs in the middle. A third is entwined spirally with the branches of a vine, bearing grapes. The capitals are square, and are ornamented with scriptural subjects. These columns support two arches ornamented with medallions, representing alternately signs of the zodiac and the labours of the various seasons of the year: we there see a man killing a hog, a shepherd keeping his flock, a woodman with a bundle of sticks on his shoulder, a man threshing corn, &c.

Almost all the pilasters of the church have capitals grossly sculptured with subjects taken from Scripture. The execution is in general extremely singular. We could distinguish the dream of the Magi: the three kings are lying asleep on the same bed; and behind them is an angel who inclines a little towards them, and points with his finger to the star which will guide them to the birth-place of the new King of the Jews. On another capital the adoration of the Magi is represented; and on another, the three young men in the fiery furnace: and some of them exhibit devils, in very whimsical costumes, with wings and hideous faces. The greater part of these capitals with historical sculptures, are immediately under the beginning of the arch. The sanctuary was adorned with a fine mosaic, representing the signs of the zodiac: but according to the custom of the Autunese, it has been destroyed.

In the place in front of the cathedral, called the *Place de Terreau*, there is a handsome fountain, the elegant style of which is that of the time of Louis XII. or Francis I. It is composed of two copulas of the same shape, the one placed over the other, and supported by fluted Ionic pillars. The second dome is surmounted with a pelican: an ingenious allegory of the abundance which water every where diffuses. Under the lower copula stands a balustre, supporting a handsome cup; the water which flows over it falls into the bason formed by a circular wall.

We then returned to the grand place of St. Ladre, (a corruption from St. Lazarus), situated in the division called the *City*. It is surrounded with handsome houses, and the middle is planted with rows of trees, and serves as a convenient promenade to the inhabitants. It was here they used formerly to act a kind of religious and military farce called the Game of St. Ladre.

The third division is called the *Marchaux*; it is the site of the ancient city of Augustedunum. The streets are narrow, the houses low and ill-built; the clock-tower however has a very picturesque appearance.

We were very desirous to see the Library belonging to the Chapter. The bishop was absent, but M. Devoucou caused it to be opened to us. We ascended to it by the stair of the steeple, which is a very remarkable building: it is a spire of a very great height, and distinguished by elegance and solidity of construction. It was erected at the expence of Cardinal Rollin. The interior of this steeple is quite smooth, and has the shape of an inverted drinking-glass. Architects conceive it to have been a master-piece in their art, to raise a scaffolding for building a hollow spire, more than 300 feet in height, but which is only from five to six inches in thickness.

After ascending fifty steps, we entered a Gothic hall, where

about 700 old volumes are ranged on the shelves, all of them in their original binding, very dirty, and covered with dust, and most of them still retaining the iron chain with which they used to be fastened to the table at the time when manuscripts and printed editions of works were extremely rare and valuable. This library, when we visited it, seemed to promise us a rich harvest of bibliographical and literary notices. We first examined the manuscripts, about 1[illegible]0 in number, and most of them missals, and theological works.

The following appeared to us the most worthy of notice:

No 70. "Aphorismi Hippocratis, cum Commento Constantini Montis Cassinensis monachi. Aliud Opus medicum cum commento Haly." Folio in Latin, two columns, with marginal and interlinear glosses, written on vellum.

No 3[illegible]. "Horatii Flacci Carmina," MS. on vellum 4to. with glosses, especially in the beginning and middle. All after the 70th verse of the Book I. Sat. 2. [illegible] writing. The three last pages of the MS. contain a Life of Horace, which is more full than those prefixed to the MSS. that have already been collated. The writing is very legible, almost without abbreviations, and very like that of the Horace in the library of Strasburgh, which Oberlin examined when preparing his edition for the press. I was told that an Englishman had offered 1[illegible]00 guineas for it. We had not time to examine whether it contained any important various readings; but it is certain that it has not yet been collated.

No [illegible]. "Textus quatuor Evangeliorum, cum Præf. Sti Hieronymi, in uncial letters, written by Goudom in 7[illegible]1, by order of the Monk Ireculf.

No 1[illegible]. A beautiful Pontifical. The first and several of the following pages are adorned with miniatures, arabesques, flowers and animals.

No 101. 'Codex Justiniani,' with glosses, a vellum MS. of the 14th century.

No 10[illegible]. S. Gregorii papæ Sacramentorum liber. A Manuscript of the 8th century, written on vellum, folio and accompanied with very curious paintings, which may serve to illustrate the history of the ancient church ceremonies.

Martene and Durand mention some manuscripts which we did not find, though we examined them all with great attention. Among these manuscripts were, the Dialogues of St Gregory, written in merovingian letters, about eleven hundred years ago, which proves that they are not of so recent a date as some critics would persuade us, and that Gregory the Great was the author of them.

We had been led to expect that our notices of rare editions would be more numerous than those of the manuscripts: but we found ourselves deceived. We met with books of every kind, but all printed betwixt the years 1520 and 1560, and most of them by Ascensius; whence it would appear that before the invention of printing, the chapter collected beautiful manuscripts, some of them no doubt gifts from pious persons; but that after the discovery of that art they did not contribute towards the encouragement of it; and that all the books in their library were probably a legacy left by some of the bishops or canons, who had collected them during the first half of the 16th Century: and that since that time no books have been given to or purchased by the chapter.

There is preserved here an old worm-eaten cardinal's hat, which belonged to Cardinal Rollin bishop of Autun. The chapter likewise possessed the rings of their first bishops: but they have sold them!

The manuscripts of which I have given a short notice above, and nine or ten more, are interesting either on account of the subject, the time when they were written, or the ornaments and illuminations with which they are accompanied: they seem to be out of their place in a city, which sets no value on them but has abandoned them to dust, and vermin. It is said that the bishop has requested them for the library of his ecclesiastical seminary; but these are not the works required for such an establishment. The printed works might be transferred to him: but the manuscripts should be deposited in the imperial library.

Having expressed a wish to see the library of the College, M. Devoucoux had the goodness to conduct us to it. This library now belongs to the City, it was in disorder, the books were covered with dust. I saw nothing interesting among them. A part of the college is now abandoned: we saw there in the school of design, the statues of president Jeannin and his wife, which were brought thither from their mausoleum in the cathedral. They have been very little damaged; and it would be the more easy to restore this mausoleum as in one of the chapels of the Cathedral, which is used as a store-room, the inscription belonging to it is still preserved. That virtuous magistrate well deserves such an act of gratitude on the part of the Autunese, for having preserved their city from the horrors of the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

It might be expected that a city so opulent and ancient, in which literature and the arts had been cultivated, which prided itself on the friendship of the Romans and had received important privileges from them, a city in fine, where the gospel had

been preached since the first introduction of Christianity into Gaul; would present to the enquiry of the historian a great number of instructive bas-reliefs, erudite inscriptions, and curious monuments. I own that I went thither with the hope of reaping an ample harvest in this respect. I was less attracted by the desire of seeing the edifices which have been already seen and described by hundreds of travellers, than by the expectation of meeting with some thing new to explain and describe. But how much was I deceived! It would seem as if the thoughtless Autunese were particularly attentive to break, or sell to strangers whatever worthy of notice is dug up in their city or the environs; for it is singular, that we found there but one inscription, which has already been published; but which I shall repeat, because that is perhaps the only means of causing it to be preserved, and it has been given inaccurately in several works.

This inscription is on a very large stone, which forms a parallelipipedon. We found it at the college, but wish to see it placed in some safer place. It is as follows:

Q. SECVND
QVIGONIS
CIVIS TREVERI
IIIIIVIR AVGVS
TALIS INADEVIS
CONSISTENTIS.
OMNIB. HONO
RIB. INTER EOS
FVNCTI QVIGO
NISECVNDVS,
ET HIBERNALIS.
LIBERTI ET HE-
RED. PATRONO
OPTIMO SVBAS
CIADEDICAVER
L. DEXDO.

From another inscription found here, it appears that the inhabitants of Bibracte had deified their city, and that religious worship was paid to the Goddess Bibracte there, in the same manner as to the God Nemausus, at Nismes.

The inscription, which has been transferred to the cabinet of the Imperial library, is as follows.

DEAE BIBRACTI
P. CAPRIL. PACATUS
IIIIII VIR AUGUSTA
V. S. L. M.

We next visited Mr. Canon Legouz, who formerly possessed a collection of curiosities, but was robbed of them during the revolution. He still however was able to shew us two monuments worthy of notice. the ancient diptycs of Autun. One of them is entire; but contains nothing instructive or illustrative of history. The tablets are embellished with very simple ornaments without inscriptions, they serve as a cover to a collection of hymns, &c. The inside is covered with various tunes of the hallelujah, &c.: the music is marked by points over the words. it seems to have been written in the ninth century, previous to the invention of our present musical notation.

Of the other diptyc, which would be much more interesting if entire, only one side remains. It is adorned with a large circle in the middle, and at the four corners with small crosses, having a lion's head in their centre. In the circular compartment in the middle, is the following inscription,

MUNERA PARVA QUIDEM PRETIO, SED HONORIBUS ALMA

which alludes to the custom of the consuls, when entering upon their office, sending these diptycs as presents to their friends, and to persons of distinction. On the upper part of the dyptic stands *fl. Petr. sabbat iustinian.* V. I., the name of their magistrate, which must not be confounded with the Emperor Justinian, is not found in the *Fasti Consulares*. This diptyc, which seems to be of the 6th century, has been purchased for the Imperial library.

As we passed by the convent of St. John the Great, I recollected, that at the north west angle of the court of that monastery, one of the most curious monuments existing is buried in the foundations. This precious remain of antiquity is a square base of white marble, having in each of its faces a geographical map. There are on it indications of several cities of Italy, Bononia, Forum Gallorum, Mutina, Forum Lepidi, Parma, Fines Gallorum, with their distances in the same manner as on the Table of Peutinger: but as there is not the least trace of christianity, we may conclude, that this monument is anterior to the reign of Constantine. Father Lempereur, who saw it when

dug out of the earth in 1706, informs us, that it contained the names of several cities, which no longer existed when the Table of Peutinger was made. Will it be believed, that this geographical monument, which is the most ancient map engraved on stone, was employed for laying the foundation of a new building, soon after it had been discovered? It would seem that it belonged to the schools of Autun, which were called *Mæniana*. Eumenius informs us, that in these celebrated schools there were porticoes with geographical plans under them, for the instruction of the students: that the maps exhibited all countries and seas: that in them were traced the course of the rivers, the bendings of the coast, the names of the principal cities, and their distances from each other. The present proprietor of the house has made an offer to the minister of the interior to dig for it, if a sum necessary to defray the expence were granted him: but nothing has been done in consequence.

M. Leschevin, returned late in the evening from his mineralogical excursion. The first object that attracted his attention on the road to Saint Prix, were pieces of lava built into a wall, and lying on the road, which may indicate the former existence of a volcano among the neighbouring mountains. On mount [illegible], he found a considerable quantity of the fragments of rocky iron ore, and from the parts visible above ground, concluded that it forms a considerable layer, occupying the surface of the mountain. This ore is traversed in every direction by veins of a greenish substance, presenting in some places an earthy appearance, and in others, the character of jasper. Near the village of St. Prix, he met with large masses of a very beautiful green porphyry, all the fragments of which, in separating from the rock, seemed from their form to have followed the laws of a regular crystallization. A great number of them form prisms, with four, five, or six sides. The [illegible] rock called the grotto of Argentol, stands on Mount Beuvray, at a short distance from St. Prix: it consists only of seven or eight single fragments confusedly heaped together, in the anfractuosities of which, he found beautiful crystals of hyaline hematoid quartz. Some of them are incrusted with eisenram, and others bear small papillary protuberances of hematite iron. M. Leschevin spent so much time in examining and collecting specimens of these, and a variety of other curious minerals and stones, especially quartz of different sorts, and of various colours, that he could not visit the lead-mine of St Prix.

Before quitting this city I cannot refrain repeating my wish, that some regulations may be adopted by government, for the preservation of the ancient monuments. The Autunese cannot

be too often reminded of what is said of them by one of their most learned fellow-citizens, John Guijon:

> Temporibus priscis Heduorum Augusta vocabar;
> Voxque rei, voci res erat apta suæ.
> Diruta sum bellis, iterumque extructa revixi;
> Ne facite, o cives, rursus ut interear!

In this city, little attention seems to be given to the culture of the mind: we did not meet with any cabinet or private library worthy of notice. Ridiculous tales or works undeserving of credit, meet with a favourable reception; but the monuments are neglected. I was told indeed, that their learned men had made great progress in natural history; but the most illustrious naturalist of the place, we find, mistakes the skeleton of a horse for the tapir of America: he pretends to have seen the *cerastes cornutus* in the neighbouring woods: and the mountains contain zink and silver ores, of which he has not a single specimen to shew!

Autun has neither trade nor manufactures. During the revolution, a cannon foundery and a manufacture of muskets was established here: but they have disappeared with the causes which gave rise to them. It is said, that a manufacture of cloth, made of the wool of the neighbouring country, went on exceedingly well; it would seem however, that the person who embarked in it did not find it answer his expectations; for when we visited the city, it no longer existed.

CHAP. XIV.

DEPARTURE FROM AUTUN — MONTJEU — MARMAGNE —MINERALS—MONTCENIS—GLASS-HOUSE AND IRON FOUNDRY OF CREUSOT—MACHINERY USED THERE FOR BORING CANON, &c. — STEAM-ENGINES—COAL-MINES—BURNING - HILLS—CANAL OF CREUSOT—FLATTING-MILL AT MEVRIN—PERREUIL—ST. BERAIN —MOUNTAIN OF SARCEY.

WE left Autun, at five in the morning, and turned out of the direct route for the purpose of visiting Creusot. Having ascended Montjeu by a road the turnings of which formed seven

terraces, we thence enjoyed a delightful prospect of the city and surrounding landscape. The vale of the Arroux was covered with a mist, but the rays of the morning sun enabled us to distinguish through it the tops of the numerous hillocks accumulated in that bason. On arriving at a greater height, the banks of the river, and the temple of Janus became visible. Soon after, we passed by the castle of Montjeu, the park belonging to which is about four leagues in circumference, and encompassed with a wall. The estate of Montjeu formerly belonged to the ancient lords of the same name, who held a distinguished rank at the court of the dukes of Burgundy, but it was sold to the President Jeannin, who retired and ended his days here. Near the park is a pond, which is fed by sources in more elevated ground, and supplies water for the mills of Autun. It is supposed, that it formerly served as a reservoir for the aqueduct and the naumachia of that city.

After passing Montjeu, we saw from the height, a charming and picturesque valley, animated by rich and varied cultivation, and a multitude of elegantly grouped trees. The myrtle (*vaccinium myrtillus L.*) grows in great abundance on these heights. We afterwards discovered a magnificent vale, terminated by a range of mountains.

About nine, we arrived at Marmagne, where we found, in the wall of the court of the parsonage, two gallic figures. The environs of this village are celebrated among the lovers of natural history, on account of the beautiful minerals found there, particularly the lamelliform oxided uranium, near Saint Symphorien, the graphic granite with bands of reddish or white feldspar, the prismatic emeralds, oxided titanium, arseniated lead, hyacinths, similar to those called hyacinths of Compostella, and different varieties of violet or greenish fluor-spath.

After stopping half an hour, we proceeded on our journey, and leaving Montcenis on our right, arrived at Creusot about noon. We met with a polite reception from M. Chapet, director of the manufactory. This gentleman, who had been an Oratorian and professor in the college of Autun, is well versed in the science of medals. While we were engaged in viewing his collection, which contains several rare medals and other antiquities, we were joined by Mr. Rouillac, superintendant of the mines and founderies, a young man of a vigorous and ardent mind, and well qualified by his intelligence and activity for the place he holds; his manners are graceful, and his easy politeness, and unassuming obligingness procure him the love of all those who have intercourse with him. With such hosts, we could not fail passing our time agreeably in this savage place, where the sky is continually dark

ed with the thick smoke of the furnaces, and the ear stunned with the confused noise of the workmen, hammers, and machinery. The overseers, however have a pleasant house and garden. In the latter an old chesnut-tree in particular has a very romantic effect: some of the branches are still cloathed with foliage, and from the sides of the hollow trunk, which have been filled with vegetable earth for the purpose, issues forth a colony of roses.

Mr. Chapet was so kind as to conduct us to the glass-house. The men leave off working on Saturdays, at noon: Mr. Chapet, however, engaged us one of the most skillful to make various articles, there being fortunately some fused matter left in one of the melting-pots. The sand used in the manufactory, which is very fine and white, is brought from Fontainebleau, at an expence of two sous the pound for carriage. It is washed and sifted here. The minium is not prepared in the house, but brought from Paris; and the annual consumption amounts to about 100,000lbs. A considerable proportion of it is employed in the manufacture of the crystal, which renders it very brittle, like the English glass of the same kind. A cubic foot of the crystal made at Creusot, weighs 240lbs. The potash is imported from America, and costs about 52 francs per quintal; so that it is cheaper than the potash made in Lorraine. The glass-makers work twice a day, and each time during four hours and a half. They are paid by the month. The first master workman receives 200 francs, besides an annual gratuity of from 40 to 50 crowns; the second has 150, and none of the others less than 100 francs per month. The boys, who act as assistants, receive each from 12 to 20 francs per month.

M. de Rouillac has turned his long exile in England during the revolution, to the advantage of his native country, by introducing the steam-engine, Wood's cylindrical blower, and other kinds of machinery invented in England; to most of which, he has added some improvements, for the purpose of saving time, increasing the velocity, augmenting their force, or to give a more pleasing appearance to the whole.

The ore is brought partly from Couches, situated at a small distance, and partly from Autré in Franche Comté. They cast here a considerable number of cannon for the sea-service. Government pays for them at the rate of six sous the pound. They are proved on the spot. The cannon and other heavy articles, are moved from one part of the manufactory to the other by means of carriages running on rail-ways.

We saw a new boring-machine erected by M. de Rouillac, and admired the precision with which it acts. Most of the machines are put in motion by means of steam-engines. The

piston of the principal pump was made in England, and served as a model for the others. There are five furnaces; namely, four large ones in which pit-coal is used; and a small one in which charcoal is burnt. The quantity of fuel consumed, is estimated at about twenty tons per day. Fossil coal abounds in the canton of Creusot; and it was this circumstance that principally induced the proprietors to establish the foundery there. In some places it is found scarcely a foot under the surface of the ground. Some of the small-hills which contain it, present the singular phenomenon of spontaneous inflammation. It is generally supposed, that the fire had been kindled by the herdsmen or the imprudence of the miners; but this is an error; as it is produced by the effect of the internal fermentation. M. de Rouillac conducted us to one of these hills, which has been burning more than twelve years: it is full of crevices, and in several places the subterraneous fire has produced a sinking of the surface. From a great number of these crevices, there issues smoke, more or less, dense and hot; and yet from observations made lately by Mr Breislak, it appears that the temperature in them, never exceeds 45 degrees of the Thermometer of Reaumur.

Sometimes conflagrations take place in the mines, in which case, they extinguish them by conducting a stream of water into them; or separate, by means of a wall, the part on fire from that where the miners are working. It has been observed, that these spontaneous conflagrations never appear in the lower parts of the valley. It very seldom happens that the workmen are suffocated by the deleterions gas generated in the mines.

The workmen reside in long buildings resembling barracks, with a range of contiguous chambers, or in detached houses, of some of which they are themselves proprietors; the administrators having given them the ground, on which they have built their habitations; each of which has a garden annexed to it. Creusot has neither church nor chapel, so that the inhabitants must go to Montcenis to attend divine service. The consequence is, that a considerable sum is withdrawn from the circulation of the place, as each workman spends on Sunday from 30 to 50 sous at Montcenis: which might be prevented by erecting a chapel near the manufactories, and allowing dancing in one of the public houses.

For the purpose of facilitating the conveyance of the manufactured articles, the company have received a commission to dig a canal at the expence of Government. This canal which is to communicate with that of Charolois, or of the Centre, already extends to a considerable distance, and passes six hundred toises under a mountain. The boats carry 25,000lbs. and

are floated by three feet of water. In the construction of the sluices, particular attention has been paid to the saving of the water, the supply of which, is rather scanty. The first is according to the plan of Mess. Solage and Bossu, with a bason, floater, and moveable sieve as it is called; the second is with an inclined plane, according to the method lately introduced into France by Mr. Fulton; M. Foiey, the engineer, who superintended the construction of the canal, has formed a model of a sluice, which it is said, will combine the advantages of the other two.

We next went to see the flatting-mill at M[illegible]in, about a league and a half from Creusot: Here, thirty workmen are employed in making iron-plates. The machinery is put in motion by water, and the plates are reduced to the required thinness by being passed between two cast-iron cylinders, the distance between which may be diminished or increased in an instant. This manufactory has long been established: it was particularly encouraged by Fenelon, when abbot of St. Cernin, who sold the works to the Creusot company. They can manufacture here about 20 tons a day, when there is plenty of water: in dry seasons however, the machinery sometimes stands still for months together.

At five in the afternoon, we took leave of our kind hosts, and proceeded on our journey to Chalons, by way of St. Leger. The road to the latter place is so detestably bad, that we were frequently obliged to alight, on account of the danger of our carriage being overturned. When we reached an elevated spot called by our postillion, "The Black Mountain of Creusot," we enjoyed a most magnificent prospect. There is great variety in the culture of the valley which stretches out on the right. The eye dwells with pleasure on a mixture of hill and dale, groupes of trees, villages, and fertile fields, with Mount St. Vincent in the distant horizon. The ground is much broken by ravines formed by the water, which rushes sometimes in torrents from the neighbouring mountains. We passed through Perreuil, a well-built village, the houses of which are covered with tiles. Farther on we left on our right St. Beraın, where there is a manufactory of bottles and window glass. The road then turned to the right, along the canal of Charolois, which we crossed at St. Leger; unfortunately, it was about dusk, when we passed Mount Sarcey, so that the fine view was veiled from our sight. At two in the morning we entered Chalons.

CHAP. XV.

CHALONS—TRADE—CABILLONUM—HISTORY—COFFEE-HOUSE—LIBRARY—THEATRE—MARKET-PLACE—CANAL OF THE CENTRE—PUBLIC-BATHS—HOSPITAL—SERVANTS OF THE POOR—CHARITABLE INSTITUTION—LIBRARY AND CABINET OF M. COCHON—MONUMENTS.

SOON after we awoke, our amiable fellow-traveller M. Leschevin took leave of us, urgent affairs obliging him to return immediately to Dijon.

The hotel du Parc, where we lodged, commands a very pleasant prospect of the public place and the quay. From the continual bustle prevailing there, it may be concluded that the town carries on a brisk trade; embarkations rapidly succeed each other: the warehouse and the adjoining open place are full of boxes and bales of goods: the inn is always crowded with travellers, waiting for conveyance to Macon, Lyons, or Paris.

The situation of Chalons in a very beautiful and fertile valley, on the banks of the Saone, and at the mouth of a navigable canal, has rendered it the centre of a flourishing trade, which enriches the inhabitants. It has long enjoyed these advantages. Cæsar, Strabo, and Ptolemy mention it. Ammianus Marcellinus ranks it among the places of importance. The ancient name was Cabillonum, from which the modern Chalons is a corruption. Several military roads branched out from Cabillonum. According to the "Notitia Imperii," the Romans had here a port and a fleet of boats, where a considerable commerce in grain was carried on, particularly for the supply of the Roman troops stationed in this part of Gaul; for whom it served as a place of arms, and a magazine for provisions and warlike stores. It is not however called a city in the Notitia Imperii, but only a *Castrum*. Chalons belonged to the territory of the Ædui; notwithstanding which, it was on the establishment of Christianity, formed into a separate diocese, mention of which is made by Sidonius Apollinaris: but since the Concordat it has been reunited to that of Autun.

After breakfasting at the Rouleau, a very handsome coffee-house, decorated principally with beautiful English engravings, and

situated in the street of *John James Rousseau*, at the corner of *Truth-street*; we went to *Principle-street*, to view the public library. All the other streets through which we passed, we found, still retained the whimsical names which had been given them during the Revolution.

The saloon containing the library is very beautiful; and the collection is still valuable and numerous: but in great disorder. The original stock was composed of the books left by the Jesuits; to which, since the Revolution, has been added the magnificent collection belonging to the suppressed abbey of La Ferte. The MSS are all modern; and we found only one printed edition of the 15th century; the others seem to have been stolen. We saw here two globes made of tin plate, five feet in diameter; the terrestial globe is ornamented with the figures of men and animals peculiar to the different countries. These globes were constructed in 1732, by Father Legrand, and were removed along with a valuable collection of books, from the convent of Capuchins to the public library.

In returning from the public library we entered the theatre, which good folks here have dignified with the title of *Theatre Français*, though probably so small a place has not an opera-house, or other foreign theatre. It has been constructed in the late church of the Jesuits. The outside has a wretched appearance: but the internal decorations are in a good style.

M. Boileau, mayor of Chalons, and two other gentlemen, had the goodness to accompany us the whole evening, in our walk through the town. In the middle of the market-place there is a fountain, adorned with a statue of Neptune: we hinted that we thought it would have been more proper to place there, a statue of the Saone: but our conductors informed us, that the statue of Neptune had been adopted, as a symbol indicating the advantages which the trade of Chalons will derive from the canal of Burgundy, which is to join the Atlantic with the Mediterranean, by means of the Seine and Saone.

We next visited the mouth of the Canal of the Centre, and its lock, around which there is a pleasant walk, and at the extremity of the mooring-place stands a stone obelisk. This canal is to join the Saone and Loire.

In the public bathing-house we found every thing neat, clean, and in the best order; and likewise in the hospitals of *Charite* and *St. Laurence*: the latter, in particular, the whole economy of which we minutely examined, is distinguished by the greatest order and neatness, or indeed we might even say, elegance. It was founded by the inhabitants of Chalons in the reign of Francis I., in 1528. There are one hundred beds, arranged in five wards: this number is sufficient for the relief of the poor inhabitants, but

when soldiers are quartered here, it is necessary to make two persons lie in one bed. This house still possesses estates sufficient for its support. We visited the apothecary's apartment, the kitchen, the bake-house, the dormitory of the nuns, and their refectory: every where the beneficent effect of the spirit that reigns in the institution are visible. The nuns have adopted the humble but respectable title of *Servants of the Poor*: their habit is blue in winter, and white in summer, with a white veil. It is not the necessity of concealing the faults committed in the world, or the desire of obtaining pardon for them from the goodness of the Almighty; it is not the necessity of burying in a cloister a virtuous misery, which induces these generous girls to expose youth and beauty to the pestilential breath and the putrid exhalations of the diseased, and to spend their life in the performance of offices not less disgusting than laborious :---no, it is that sublime love of humanity, which the Christian religion calls *charity*, in the idea that in the poor, it is God himself we honour; and the more we practise the works of mercy, the more we commune, as it were, with God, who is all love, clemency, and goodness. The number of these Servants of the Poor amounts to twenty-three; viz. sixteen nuns and seven novices: they all belonged to the best families of the place, and had all a patrimony, the use of which they continued to enjoy. Several of them have an annual revenue of from 3000 to 4000 francs; and some even considerably more; and they all apply their income in an exemplary manner. The hospital provides them only with lodging, each of them having a neat bed-room, adorned with some religious engravings. They even purchase their clothes with their own money; but, as a mark of Christian humility, receive annually from the governors of the house, a pair of shoes and two pounds of soap. One of these ladies shewed us every part of this asylum of suffering humanity. She informed us that the municipal body pays a visit to the house every year, on which occasion the mistress presents the keys to the mayor, who replies, "They cannot be in more trusty hands." These words, and the consciousness of having done good, are by her, and her interesting companions deemed an ample recompence for the most courageous sacrifices. They make a vow only for one year; at the expiration of which, they may quit the house, and even marry: but there have been very few examples of such a secession. It is the genuine spirit of charity which prompted them to adopt this mode of life; and the same motives induce them to persevere. During the revolutionary period, not one of them quitted the hospital. It has been observed, that hospitals in general are better served by female than by male attendants. The various

wants of the sick require a care, patience, attention and gentleness, of which women only are capable.

There are very neat baths in the house, and every accommodation is provided for the bathers at a very moderate price. The profits form part of the income of the hospital.

One of the wings, which has no communication with the rest of the hospital, is used for the reception of strangers, who pay 9 francs a day. On the first story there are three spacious rooms, with two beds in each, on one of which the patient may be laid while the other is making. Adjoining to each of these rooms is an alcove for a servant.

In the same building is the hall where the council of administrators meet. These only attend to the finances of the house; the internal management of which is confined entirely to the nuns.

We were astonished to find that they did not employ in this hospital the means recommended by Guyton-Morveau for purifying infected air. It would seem that this invention is unfortunately but little known or attended to in the provinces.

Besides this hospital, Chalons has to boast a dispensary, and several other charitable institutions. A school where orphans are taught trades, still retains an annual income of [illegible] livres. From the bridge which we passed in coming to the hospital, there is a fine view of the town and the course of the Saone.

Next morning at six o'clock, we paid a visit to M. Coc[illegible]on, a learned physician, who possesses a fine library: he shewed us a small image of Mercury, and some gold coins of the Lower Empire, which had been found among the ruins of the citadel. He had likewise a gold coin of Philip, forty of which were found in a neighbouring field, and which, as is well known, were current in Gaul: and in imitation of them the Gauls struck their gold coins, on which we likewise find a rudely-engraved figure of Victory on a two-wheeled car.

We next took a walk to the ruined church of St. Martin in the Fields, to examine some Celtic figures which we were told, remained there; but we could not find the objects of our research. As we passed by the church-yard, we read over the gate, the words *Ager Somni*: this inscription was placed there in 177[illegible], long before the time when the Revolutionists gave to all the burying-ground the name of *Fields of Rest* or *Sleep*.

At Chalons, the scales of the bleak (*cyprinus alburnus*) which are caught in great abundance, are used for preparing the substance which serves to give the peculiar colour and brilliancy to artificial pearls.

CHAP. XVI

PASSAGE-BOAT---SEGUSIANI---[illegible]---LA ROME---COLOMBIER---TOURNUS---FLABELLUM---MATISCO---MACON CABINET OF M. ROUJOUX---ANTIQUE MONUMENTS, &c. ---CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE MACONESE WOMEN HOSPITAL---DEVASTATIONS---MANUFACTURES---ABBEY OF CLUNY.

CONCEIVING that the navigation of the Saone would be more pleasant than travelling by land, we took [illegible] in the passage-boat, called the *Water-coach* [illegible] selves, as it proceeds almost as fast as the stage-coach. On quitting Chalons, we passed by the [illegible] the ancient Segusiani situated on the left bank of the Saone. In [illegible] were subject to the [illegible] that dependence in the time of [illegible] Chalons [illegible] Macon, and the towns on the right bank, continued to belong to the Eduan territory.

Soon after we saw the mouth of the [illegible] a place where the river forms a large bend [illegible] made across the fields. The [illegible] right, and for a considerable space [illegible] Having changed horses at Colombier, we [illegible] bridge at Tournus [illegible] with an iron balustrade. A toll [illegible] repair.

Tournus, called Tinurtium in the Itinerary of Antoninus, [illegible] pleasantly situated on the declivity of a small hill [illegible] quay. There was formerly here a celebrated college [illegible] The monks of the abbey had a curious antique *flabellum*, or fan, with an ivory handle, and covered with figures, emblems, and inscriptions, with which the deacon formerly drove away the flies from the altar during the celebration of mass. This curiosity is now in the cabinet of M. Roujoux.

A little below Tournus, the Saone becomes very broad. We arrived at Macon about eleven at night.

Macon is derived from Matisco, the name it had among the ancients. The Romans had here a manufacture of arrows.

Next morning we waited on M. Roujoux, prefect of the department, where we met with a most friendly reception. His son, a well informed young man, and fond of antiquities, had the goodness to accompany us in our walk through the place. His own cabinet contains some curious monuments, particularly several bronze figures, lately discovered in a well.

M. de Roujoux also possesses part of a fine diptic; but unfortunately it bears no inscription, otherwise we should learn who the consul is who appears in it. He is clothed in the *toga laticlavia*, or garment wrought with purple; he holds in his right hand, not the kind of bag which they called Mappa circensis and which the consul threw into the area of the amphitheatre to give the signal for the games to begin, but a *patera* on [illegible] he is seated between two other patricians also decorated with the *toga* and *laticlava*; perhaps they represent two of the same family [illegible] one of them is beardless, and may be the son of the other [illegible] who seem [illegible] [illegible] They assist at the [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] which has [illegible] apartments [illegible] the tablet [illegible] the [illegible] to the number of three, at the [illegible] booth [illegible] the one described. It [illegible] which Millin takes to be [illegible] the order and symmetry in which [illegible] no doubt that they serve [illegible] of the pillars which support [illegible] seen on several tablets the combats [illegible] There are also prize fights [illegible] this one the combat with [illegible] that represents the [illegible] In the middle of the area of the amphitheatre are little doors, which by opening at the instant, may preserve the combatants, when pursued too closely by the animals with which they engage.

The most curious piece of antiquity in the cabinet of Monsr. de Roujoux is a [illegible] bas relief on the two sides. [illegible] first represents the emperor holding the spear, and borne upon an eagle, which is the symbol of his deification. Hercules naked and armed with his formidable club is on the right, Mars in complete armour, with his lance and buckler, is on the left, both regarding with admiration the new divinity. Below is Neptune with his trident, and half immersed in the ocean, and who also is a witness of this apotheosis. Around are the signs of the zodiac.

The reverse personifies the Earth seated on a fertile soil: she bears on her head the modius, or basket full of fruit. She is surrounded by the Four Seasons of the year. The sun passes majes-

tically above in his car, drawn by four horses; around are the signs of the Zodiac.

It is evident that this stone relates to the apotheosis of some Roman emperor. It has not been executed at the best era of the art; and hence it would appear to represent one of the last princes who received divine honours; and among them we should stop at him to whom they were decreed in Gaul. We know that the Gauls, from their love for Victorina, who had so much authority among them that she was called Augusta, and mother of the Armies, placed her son Victorinus among the gods: several medals have preserved to us the record of that consecration. It is therefore probable that it is the event here represented: the signs of the zodiac indicate the celestial abodes to which Victorinus retires. The deities of Heaven, the earth and the water, take part in this apotheosis. It is possible that this stone was engraven to soften by the recollection of the honours paid her son, the grief of Victorina for his death.

We should have been able to make several valuable discoveries at Macon, if we had always met with people of such an active and intelligent mind as M. de Roujoux. They found in 1764, a treasure of antiquities in the soil on which they built l'Hotel de Ville. It consisted of a considerable number of medals of all metals, down to the reign of Galli Enus, which establishes the presumption that they were buried during the time of the thirty tyrants. Amongst them were several silver figures, goblets and dishes: M. de Tersan has one of the last, in the middle of which is a man sacrificing. Caylus has given but indifferent representations of these monuments, which are however, of little importance. One of the most curious is in the possession of M. de Montegut, at Thoulouse: it is a little silver Cupid.

After having viewed most of the curiosities, we visited the church, where the bishop of Autun administered confirmation to sixteen united parishes. It was the first time that the ceremony had taken place since the Revolution. This day was consecrated to all the women of the country; and we saw them in their holiday costume, which was not different from that which they usually wore, except in being more particularly neat, and clean; this costume consists of a cloth petticoat, generally blue, with a corset of the same: the edge of the petticoat had a border of a deep red colour. That which most distinguishes the costume of the women of Mâcon, is the little felt hat, which they wear on the side of the head: they wear also a very little cap, which shews all the points of the hair. Every one takes off the little hat on entering the church, and carries it in her hand. The countenance and manners of these women expressed a de-

votion and veneration, which the respectable appearance of the worthy prelate was well calculated to inspire.

The ceremony is generally celebrated under the dome of the hospital called *la Charité*; the cathedral was destroyed in the time of rage and destruction by the revolutionary fury of the Mâconnois. The emperor has given orders to rebuild it: in fact, the chapel of an hospital should only be for the sick and those who come to administer to their wants; for it is neither decent nor wholesome for the inhabitants of a city to attend public worship in the same place with so many people suffering under different distempers. We examined the four wards of this hospital, but there was not that appearance of comfort and cleanliness which we had observed in the hospital of Chalons. It is true the revenues of the house are much dimininished since the revolution; they amounted formerly to the sum of 114,000 livres, at present they are only 40,000.

From the study in the house of the professor is seen a most beautiful and extensive prospect; the plain, which is of great extent, is very much diversified: the Saone forms a large sheet of water under the windows at a little distance, and when the weather is clear, Mont Blanc may be observed raising its lofty head above the clouds.

The city is dark and dirty, and has but one handsome house. The streets of Macon are chiefly of flint stones, but there is a footpath of better pavement next the houses.

Here are no buildings nor manufactures of any note; there is only one of paper for hanging. The principal article of commerce is the wine of the country, which is in great esteem; the sweetmeats, and above all the marmalade, are excellent.

If the interior of the city be dirty and disagreeable, the quay on the Saone is very pleasant, and is lined with several handsome houses; the view is always enlivened by the number of boats which are constantly passing and repassing on the river. There is a stone bridge of thirteen arches over the Saone.

There is in Mâcon a society of agriculture and arts, which pay also some attention to history and literature, but agriculture is chiefly the subject of their enquiries, and nothing is neglected that may be useful to the community. We had a great desire to see the celebrated abbey of Cluny, but it is totally in ruins. We therefore determined to leave Mâcon the next day.



Women of Macon.



A Woman of Lyons



A Mariner of Avignon.

CHAP. XVII.

ST. ROMAIN—BEAUREGARD—RIOTIER—DRESSES OF THE PEASANTRY—TREVOUSE—LYON—DIFFERENT ESTABLISHMENTS IN THAT CITY.

WE embarked at five o'clock in the morning on the 10th of May, on board the *water diligence*, called *la Sagesse*, and had every reason to be pleased with our preference of the water. All the way from Mâcon to Lyon, the sight is refreshed and amused, by the delightful appearance of the bank on the right side of the Saone. We behold several villages, mansions, and mountains, in addition to which, the water-side is covered with trees. The island formed by the Saone, above the bridge at Mâcon, presents a delightful picture.

This river is only navigable from Auxonne: although slow in its course, and generally very still, it at times inundates the shore, and leaves behind a thick and viscous slime, which destroys the vegetables. It is probably this slime that makes the waters of the Saone so unfit for use, particularly at Lyon, but they are good for the purpose of dyeing, and all the dyers of Lyon have their houses on the banks.

We changed horses at St. Romain, and presently passed Beauregard; we stopped at Riotier, a small village where there are several little taverns; the women and girls belonging to which, ran to meet the travellers on their landing, to get them for guests.

We now no longer see the little felt hat of the Mâconoise peasant; here the women are all habited a la Lyonnoise, the hair without powder is turned up behind *en chignon*, a cap trimmed with lace in small plaits, the bosom is entirely covered with a handkerchief, also ornamented with lace, the gown is generally green or brown; the richer sort wear a border of broad silver lace, the apron is rose colour, and the shoes black leather with small heels, the neck is generally adorned with a necklace of gold of three or four rows.

At noon we continued our journey, and passed the little town of Trevouse, the situation of which, is cheerful and picturesque, being on the slope of a hill, and on the border of the Saone; on the summit is seen the ruins of the ancient fort. On the banks

of the river is the hospital; there are also several pretty houses, and many gardens adorned with trees.

At the distance of two leagues from Lyon, is a large town, called Neuville, where we again changed horses.

Several flotilla composed of one or more large boats, to which were fastened ten or twelve smaller ones, were going up the Saone, many of them were laden with wine, soap, &c. these flotilla are generally tracked by fourteen or sixteen horses.

A short distance from the river side on the right, are the quarries from whence the Lyonnois have their stone for building; it is the chief article of commerce of these environs. The Saone contracts by degrees, and we begin to see a succession of pleasant country houses, which present a most diversified and delightful prospect all the way to Lyon. To the right, are the grounds of the late celebrated M. Poivre, called la Freta, situated in front of a village, and where this learned man had laid out a plantation of valuable foreign trees. On the shore of the Saone, there is an arched entrance to this place, on which is a chinese pavillion: the habitation is very picturesque. A little farther is a place called *Roi*, it is in front of a small island called *Ile-de-Roi*; near this island is the fine house of M. Couder, a banker. All the shore to the left is hilly, and has a wild appearance. These heights bear the name of *la Croix Rousse*, and is the fatal place where the army which besieged Lyon established their batteries.

We arrived at Lyon at five o'clock, this city is celebrated for its antiquity, its extensive commerce, its riches, and the calamities to which it has been subjected. The busy and populous appearance of this city, the streets, the number of the houses, shops, and warehouses, would almost have persuaded us that we were still at Paris.

The ancient name, *Lugudunum* or *Lugdunum*, is common to many cities of Gaul, and from which, is derived the French name of Lyon.

As it was so late when we arrived, we determined to spend our evening at the *Spectacle*; we went to *the grand Theatre*, where they performed the Opera of Œdipus, and the ballet of Pysché; as at Paris, the ballets are the chief attraction.

The next day we visited the *grand Hotel-Dieu*, a superb building which is the work of M Soufflot, and the greatest ornament of the quay of the Rhone. The inscription merely expresses that it is the asylum of the suffering poor. It contains one thousand eight hundred beds, including those of the members of the establishment, who attend on the sick, and the house; the number of them is about two hundred and sixty.

All these bedsteads are made of iron, there are three ranges

of them in each ward. When the number of the sick will permit, they have each a separate bed, but very often they are so numerous that this is impossible. We saw several very narrow beds, in which there were two people.

The wards are sufficiently lofty and spacious, nevertheless on entering them, a very disagreeable smell is very sensibly perceived.

We passed successively through the different wards. There are four for those afflicted with fevers, two for the men, and two for the women; they are in the form of a cross, and unite at an atlas lately constructed, and placed under a small dome. From thence we passed to the principal dome, where was formerly a large and beautiful atlas, but all the decorations have been destroyed, and the marks of the cannon-balls which were fired on the city by the army of the Convention are very plainly to be seen.

The ward which forms the continuation of the dome, is appropriated to the wounded, it looks to the quay of the Rhone. In the dome are several large windows, which to prevent accidents, are strongly grated to the height of about seven feet.

To one of the pillars at the entrance of this ward is fastened a black tablet, with an inscription, which imports that the committee of administration to the hospital, desiring to procure the sick the comfort of a bed to themselves, had opened a subscription, the produce of which had been employed in the purchase of the necessary beds. Then follows the list of the subscribers, who contributed very considerable sums to this work of charity; there are the names of several incorporated companies in trade, such as the merchant-drapers, hatters, &c. &c. The subscription in about six weeks amounted to the sum of 155,243 francs, which bought three hundred iron bedsteads, with a mattras to each.

There are in the ward for the wounded, a certain number of beds, for the accommodation of persons who are able to pay about half a crown a day: these beds have curtains, and probably the people enjoy other small advantages.

We visited the surgical operation ward, and that for wounded women. The different wards are not separated, and it is a serious inconvenience. It would be doubtless, proper to inclose them, to the end that maladies of the same nature might be confined to one compartment, though certainly in that case, the air could not be circulated so freely; however, there cannot be a more afflicting scene than a crowd of human beings in the same place, labouring under a variety of maladies, continually witnessing the sufferings of each other, and listening to the cries of agony and dissolution.

We afterwards visited the refectory of the persons attached to the service of the establishment: we counted eighty sisters, fifty brothers, and forty or fifty novices. The kitchen is not larger than it ought to be for so extensive an establishment. We saw with regret, that they had not yet introduced the improvements of Count Rumford, to save fuel.

The hall for pharmaceutical preparations, is remarkable for its size and for the order which is preserved. The funds were at first twenty thousand francs, and having been well laid out, are at this time increased to twenty thousand crowns. It supplies the Hotel-Dieu, de la Charité, de l'Antiquaille, in short all the hospitals, and sick poor of the different parishes, and they sell also medicines to the city. This yields beyond the general expences, an annual receipt of twenty thousand francs. There are recipes such as the Royal Diet-drink, for which this establishment is celebrated, and which produce an immense profit to the hospital. One of the overseers and a sister, established another place for medicines, which was at first some injury to the hospital, but that unfair experiment, had but a short-lived success.

The revenues of the hospital have never been farmed, although several have bid for them. It yet enjoys conjointly with the charity, which is united under the same administration, an income of 400,000 francs.

The sisters have restored their costume, they are distinguished from the novices by the cross which they wear at their bosoms. The brothers wear at the left side a plate of silver, on which is engraven an image of the Virgin Mary at the foot of the cross.

From the Hotel-Dieu, we went to la Charité. The church is in a very good condition; there is not the smallest appearance of decay. They have even respected the sepulchral honours of the benefactors of the poor. On the monument of one of these truly illustrious men Simon Fornier, who died November 7th, 1678, we read the following distichs.

> Natus in hæresi, sed sanctâ mente reversus.
> In Prisca voluit Religione mori
> Quasivit bona, sed nobis dedit omnia seque;
> Quid dare plus poterat qui sua seque dedit.

The superintendant was polite enough to attend us to the refectory for the old men. They had just supped, and were met together to prayers, which were read by one of themselves. Friday is the day on which they are allowed to go out, and several have profited of the opportunity not to return to supper. In this case, the regulation of the house is, that they shall be deprived of their allowance, because it is presumed, that they

have found something better in the town. The superintendant estimated about three hundred of these persons. When they are all assembled, the number exceeds four hundred and fifty.

They have four meals a day. At seven o'clock they had breakfast, which consists of soup or bread, whichever they please; at half-past ten dinner, being soup, and sometimes vegetables; at two o'clock a repetition of the breakfast, at five o'clock supper soup and catel bouilli. They have meat every day, and at each meal the value of three *décilitres* of wine, about a bottle of wine a day for each person. The dress of both the old men and women is black.

They have liberty to be unemployed between meals, or to work, to get money to supply their little luxuries, such as tobacco, coffee, &c. They have the entire produce of their labour. They are furnished with dress, food, and lodging. In well regulated hospitals, the old women, excepting those who are too aged or infirm, are compelled to employ themselves in some way during the intervals between their meals. They endeavour to interest the manufacturers and tradesmen of the town, for whom they spin cotton and worsted, or do other work of the kind, suited to aged people: the inhabitants also find a benefit from it, because they have the workmanship at a cheaper rate. To teach the poor people this work, they pay for skilful superintendants in each branch. The aged have the advantage of being relieved from tiresome and weary hours, by an arrangement which puts money in their pockets and supplies them with additional comforts to meliorate their condition. It is thus that the hospitals have been kept up, notwithstanding the loss of the greater part of their revenues, and have put themselves in a condition to wait patiently the fulfillment of the promises made them by the government at different periods, to replace their losses; we think that this may be applied to the hospital of Lyon.

We were shewn the work-rooms of the shoemakers, where eight of them were employed in mending the shoes of the old men; the refectory for girls, in which there are about a hundred and ten covers; the *oratory* for the old men, some cells; the manufactory for carding and spinning wool, where the work is done by the hand, and not by means of machines, which however would turn to more advantage; the refectory for the brothers, about fifty covers; and the manufactory for winding silk. This work is done by means of three machines, in the form of lanterns, in which the reels and the bobbins turn, and are put in motion by a wheel like that of a crane. The wheel is placed in an outer room, and is worked by two men.

Besides the children maintained in the house, there are four thousand boarded in the country at the charge of the establishment. There are also classes where they are taught reading, writing, grammar, and arithmetic: at the age of fourteen years the boys are apprenticed to different masters in the city.

In the room called La Creche, there are about forty or fifty cradles. They keep the children as short a time as possible, and in general send them to the country the next day. They continue to receive and deliver in this establishment pregnant unmarried women.

There are at Lyon, many other charitable establishments, namely, the hospital of the Antiquaille, which I shall more particularly mention hereafter; the *depôt de mendicite*, which is for the reception of the poor, the insane, and venereal patients; this institution does not appear to be so well governed as it might be. The *Bureau de bienfaisance* is of much more utility, they distribute fuel and food to a great number of poor people; the *Institution de bienfaisance* is a particular establishment, for which they are indebted to the zeal of two physicians, *M. Dahnet* and *M. Leclerc*; they are also indebted to the members of the society of agriculture, for the *Etablisment de bienfaisance*, where soap a la Rumford is distributed. There are also four *Maisons de Charité*, one in each quarter of the city for the relief of the sick. The sisters who attend these last, also keep schools, to teach young girls to read, write, sew, and knit.

These benevolent institutions, are indispensibly necessary in towns where almost all the inhabitants are mechanics and manufacturers: at Lyon, most of the common people live by the silk works. If therefore, the produce of the mulberry trees fail, as it did in the year 1787, the manufactories stop, and the workmen become destitute. A prolonged war, and successive court mournings, produce the same effects. This unfortunate class of people must then be supported until the labour of their hands will again furnish the means of providing for their wants; otherwise the workmen in such adverse times, would perish, or suffer the extremeties of want and misery. The liberal manner in which the several charitable institutions at Lyon are supported, prove that the most tender compassion for their fellow creatures, is the principle by which they are actuated. The chief magistrate can always find among them men who will charge themselves with the direction of the several establishments, from the sole motive of doing good. They bring up their children in the practice of this most necessary duty. The ladies take with them their daughters to visit and comfort the sick and distressed; they also conduct them to the houses of the rich, where they go to

collect alms, and teach them to sympathize in the sufferings of others, to make a noble use of riches, and to detest insensibility.

M. Delandine, secretary of the Atheneum of Lyons, and librarian of the city, gave us the meeting the next day to visit the library. It is situated in a part of the buildings of the ci-devant college of the *Trinité*: the lyceum, which I have already noticed, occupies the rest.

This library which commands a beautiful view of the Rhone, and is one of the finest structures to be seen in Europe, suffered by the attempts of the emissaries of the revolutionary system; but it is now re-established, and the vacancies are filled with books brought from the monasteries, and with the excellent library bequeathed to the public by P. Adamoli. This generous citizen, foreseeing that the unhappy circumstances of the times might endanger the existence of his donation to the city, placed it under the protection of the municipal authority; desiring particularly, that the valuabie books, to the acquisition of which he had dedicated the whole of his fortune, might be preserved to the library; and requested that a member of the academy, who was the father of a family, might join in the trust. The desires of this benefactor to letters, have been fulfilled, and the objects of his liberality, make at this time one of the most valuable parts of the library of this city, which contains upwards of one hundred and twenty thousand volumes. The building is a long and spacious hall, surrounded above with a gallery as in the imperial library: in the middle are several large globes, which yet bear the marks of the hammers applied to destroy them.

At the extremity of the hall is a bust of *Raynal*, and another of *Voltaire*; the first is marble, that of *Voltaire* is a composition to imitate bronze; a gilt flame issues from the head, and another from the heart. This ridiculous device was given by an architect.

The library suffered much during the Revolution. A battalion was lodged there, and the soldiers during six months kindled their fires with the books. The library of the late M. Adamoli, is placed in an apartment on one side of the grand hall, which fortunately remained unopened during the siege: this collection is very valuable.

Adjoining is a small closet of antiquities, which contains many interesting and estimable curiosities.

There was formerly a collection of medals and coins; during the revolution a considerable quantity, which were silver, was taken from the repository and given to a goldsmith, who valued them in the mass at 17,000 livres: as the few which remain were still in bags, we could not examine them.

On leaving the library we went to the museum, which consists of only one large room, in which there are about forty pictures; among these is a *St. James*, and another saint, by Péru-

gin; a *Nativity*, by Stella, a painter, of Lyons; an *Adoration of the Shepherds*, by Jordaens? and a *Flagellation*, by Palma: there is also a very fine *Christ*, in the mosaic of Florence.

But the most curious piece of antiquity is the leg of a horse in bronze, the history of which is very singular. From time immemorial the watermen and fishermen had observed in the Saone between the wooden bridges, on one side of that at Aisnay, when the water was low, a large substance which they called the *Broken Iron Pot*. The fishermen carefully avoided the place for fear of breaking their nets; the watermen, on the contrary, laid hold of it with their boat hooks to help them up the stream. However this supposed pot resisted all these efforts for fifteen hundred years.

On the 4th of February, 1766, the water being frozen hard, and at the same time very low, a boat-builder, one Bartholomew Laurent, perceived that what had been taken for a pot till that time, was a something of more considerable magnitude, and that it would be worth while to get it up. He confided his intention to one of his friends, a man named Louis l'Etoile, and as they were not strong enough themselves, they called some porters to their assistance, and making use of a rope, after many efforts, they dragged out this horse's leg; they offered it to a citizen of Lyons for eighteen livres, which he refused to give; they then carried it to the hotel-de-ville, and received two louis from the prevost. This leg has since been placed in the museum.

It is evident that it belonged to an equestrian statue. M. Adamoli, who made the donation of his valuable library to the city, was careful in his researches to discover to whom this statue could have been decreed: the following inscription which still remains in the cellar of a house, *rue Leuzerne*, gave rise to an ingenious conjecture.

TIB. ANTISTIO FAVS
TIFIL. QVIRINA MARCI
ANO. DOMO CIRCINI
PRAEF. COH. II HISPANAE
TRIB. LEG. XV LIINARIS
PIAE. FIDELIS AEIECTO. A
LAE, SVLPIC AE. C. R. SECVN
DVM. MANDATA IMPP. DO
MINOR NN. AVGG. INTE
GERRIM. ABSTINENTISSIMO
QVE. PROCVR. TRES PROVINc.
GALLIÆ. PRIMO. VMQVAM.
EQ. R. A. CENSIBVS ACCIPI
ENDIS. ADARAM CAESA
RVM. STATVAME EQVES TRƎM
PONENDAM CENSVE
RVNT

" To Tiberius Antistuso Marcianus, the son of Faustus, of the tribe Qurina, of a Circean origin, prefect of the second Spanish cohort. Tribune of the fifteenth pious and truly Apollinarian Legion, prefect of the Sulpician wing, composed of Roman Citizens, honest and trusty cashier, appointed by order of the Emperor, our august master. The first Roman knight charged with the receipt of Tributes at the Altar of the Cesars. The three provinces of Gaul have united to raise him an equestrian statue."

M. Adamoli was of opinion, and with great probability, that the leg in question belonged to the equestrian statue of Tiberius Antistius, the receiver of the contributions, who acquired this honour from the three provinces of Gaul, for his disinterested moderation, The inscription precisely says, that this statue was near the altar of the Cesars, which was at a little distance from the spot where the leg was found. This statue might have been thrown into the Saone in the time of some civil commotion, or it might have been the effect of the inconsiderate zeal of the primitive christians who had built a church on the scite of the temple of Aisnay.

It is therefore extremely probable, that this leg belonged to an equestrian statue of Antistius, or of some other. It would be an important discovery if this statue could be found; for it is well known how very valuable and scarce these monuments of antiquity are; but it appears that no endeavour to discover it has yet been made.

Although it was only the month of May, we had a series of hot weather; but the temperature changed, and we had a day of cold and penetrating rain. The climate of Lyon is not consistent with its latitude of 45 degrees : the alpine and sub-alpine mountains with which this city is surrounded, make the air very changeable. The Saone has been frozen in the middle of March, and the buds of the vine have been nipped by the frost on the 25th of April. The heat is excessive in summer, and the autumn is the pleasantest season of the year.

CHAP. XVIII.

ROMAN CABINET—HOTEL DE VILLE—DISCOURSE OF CLAUDIAN THE EMPEROR—BULL OFFERING—INSCRIPTIONS—BOTANIC GARDEN—INSCRIPTION ON THE TOMB OF CALPHURNIA SEVERA—CLOCK OF LIPPIUS—SINGULAR SCULPTURES—MARTYRS—LOURVICUS—CHURCH—HOSPITAL—PRISON OF ST. POTHIU—ST. FRANCIS—CHURCH—MOSAICS—CHAPPENOST—AQUEDUCTS.

HAVING noticed some old shells a few, bad pictures, and a fragment of an antique bas-relief at the entrance of an alley in *La Place* Bellecour, near *La Charité*. we concluded that it was an exhibition of curiosities; we therefore went in the morning and introduced ourselves to a little man, who in the first place told us, that we must pay a shilling to see his museum. We went in and beheld a confused heap of the mere rubbish of mineralogy with some madripores, sham medals, and pretended antique bronzes which the proprietor, il Romano, for so he called himself, would have fain passed upon us for the most precious morsels of antiquity.

We went from thence to the ancient Hotel de ville, now the house of the prefect. It is one of the handsomest edifices of the kind in Europe. It was built in 1647, from the plan of Simon de Maupin, surveyor of the town. It was burnt in 1674, and Julius Hardouin Mausard replaced the front: the figures which ornamented it are thrown down, as well as those which were in the vestibule.

We were very desirous to see the celebrated bronze tablets, which were discovered in 1528, on the mountain of St. Sebastian. they contain the discourse which the Emperor Claudian made in the senate, to obtain the grant for the admission of the Gauls. It was engraved on three tablets, but there only remain at this time two of them, which are under the vestibule in the building, and are placed against the wall at the left hand of the entrance. In front is the inscription, by which the Consulate of Lyon has commemorated the Epoch, to which they have reference. We should have been glad to collate them with

the numerous copies already published, but the colossal statue of the Rhone was placed before, and it was impossible to make that verification.

These tablets, are very important monuments of antiquity, as well in themselves, as in the object of their construction. Tacitus has given the speech of Claudian in the eleventh book of his annals, but it may be seen that he has retouched it. The stile of that emperor was feeble, but from the pen of the writer it has acquired vigour, and perspicuity, which establishes the opinion that the ancient historians have taken from the notes or traditions of the times, the substance of the harangues which were attributed to their princes and generals, but that they embellished and altered them after their own manner.

The statue of the Rhone, is supported on an oar, and on a lion, who appears in the act of roaring. It has a furious air; but the attitude is strained; near it is an enormous salmon.

The Saone, which fronts it, is also supported on a lion; the attitude is more tranquil, but as much out of nature, without expression, and without dignity. These two colossal statues, ornament the Place de Bellecour; they are executed by Guillaume Couston.

The beautiful altar which was discovered in 1705, on the mountain of Fourviers, is as worthy of attention as the tablets of bronze, of which we have just spoken. It is known to have a curious inscription which represents the ceremony of the bull-offering in the year 160, A. D. for the health of the Emperor Antoninus the Pious, and for the prosperity of the colony.

Much has been written on the subject of the bull-offering; but what follows is all that is known of that remarkable ceremony. They dug a large hollow in the ground, into which, the priest descended, who had to make the expiation; he was attired in a robe of silk, a crown upon his head, and a fillet. The bottom of the hollow was pierced with several holes; and the blood of the victim sprinkled the priest, who was to turn, that he might be entirely covered with it. Then every one knelt before him as if he represented the deity, and his bloody garments were preserved with the most religious veneration.

The altar at Lyon, which is the most beautiful of the kind, has three fronts; the principal one bears a bucranium, or bull's-head, decorated with fillets for the sacrifice, and has part of the inscription. The second, the head of a ram, which proves that this bull-offering was also the same as was offered in memory of Atys, to whom they sacrificed that animal. The third, the crooked sword of sacrifice, made in the form of the harp, with which Tersius cut off Medusa's head. Over this sword is the following inscription.

CVIVS MESONYCTIVM
FACTVM EST. V. ID. DEC.

That is to say—The mesonyctium (of this bull-offering), took place the 5th of the ides of December. The mesonyctium was probably the eve of the feast.

The bull-offering was then a propitiation, a baptism of blood. It was repeated every twenty years, and the women received this kind of regeneration as well as the men.

TAVRO BOLIO MATRIS D. M. I. D.
Quod Factum est ex Imperio Matris D.
DEVM.
Pro Salvte Imperatoris CAES-T.AELI
Hadriani Antonini AVG-PII PP.
Liberorum que EIVS
Et Status Coloniae LVGUDVN
L. AEMILIVS CARPVS IIIIII VIR AVG ITEM
DENDROPHORVS
VORON FECIT.

(Here is the figure of a Bull's Head.)

VIRES EXCEPIT ET A VATICANO TRANS
TVLIT ARA ET BVCRANIVM
SVO INPENDIO CONSACRAVIT
SACERDOTE
Q. SAMMIO SECVNDO AB. XV VIRIS
OCCABO ET CORONA EXORNATO
CVI SANCTISSIMVS ORDO LVGVDVNENS
PERPETVITATEM SACERDOTI DECRIVIT
APP. ANNIO. ATILO.BRADVA T CLOD VIBIÒ
VARO COS
L. D. D. D.

which may be translated as follows.

" For the bull-offering of the grand mother of the gods Idenius, Drudyminius, which was made by order of the divine mother of the gods, for the preservation of the emperor Cesar, Titus, Ælius, Adrian Antoninus, the pious, as much a father to this country, as of his own children, and of the state of the colony of Lyon. Lucius

Æmelius, Carpus, Sextumvir, Augustal and Dendrophorus have preserved the sexual organs of the bull, have conveyed them to the Vatican, and have consecrated the altar, and the bucranium at their expence, under the priesthood of Quintus Sammius Secundus, ornamented by the Quindecimvirs, with an occabo (or bracelets), and a crown, to which the most holy order of Lyon decreed the perpetual priesthood, under the consulate of Appius, Amnios Atilius Bradua, and of Titus Clodius Vibius Varus. The place was granted by a decree of the Decurions."

This valuable monument is at the Hotel de Ville, in a place which bears the name of the Room of Henry the Fourth. It actually serves to contain the records of the prefecture.

We saw in an adjoining room, two inscriptions of tomb-stones in the form of altars. They are not known: a piece of the right side of the first has been sawed of, with two or three of the last letters of each line.

Et Memoriæ Aetern
Vitalmi Felicis Vet Leg.
M. Homini Sapientissimi
Et Fidelissimo Negotia
Ri LVGDV nuensi Artis C
Taria. Qui Vixit Annis
VIIII M. V. D. X. Natvs Est D.
Martis Die Martis Prof
TVS Die Martis Missione
Percepit. Die. Martis Def
nctus est Faciendum C
Vitalin Felicissimus F
VSI. IVLIA NICE. CON
VXX ET. SVB. ASCIA DED
CAVERNT

Which inscription, after supplying the letters wanting, may be translated nearly as follows.

"To the names and eternal memory of Vitalinus Felix, veteran of the Minervian legion; a wise man and an honest paper merchant, known in Lyon for his probity, and deceased after 69 years: he was born on a Tuesday, set out for the wars on a Tuesday, obtained his discharge on a Tuesday, and died on a Tuesday. His thrice happy son Victalinus, and his wife Julia Nice have erected this monument, and have dedicated it under the *Ascia*

The second inscription is equally curious.

D M

AEMILII VENVSTI MIL

LEG XXX V.P.F. INTERFE

CTI AEMILI CAIVS ET

VENVSTA FILII AEM

ILIA AFRODISIA LI

BERTA MATER EOR

VM INFELICISSIM

PONENDVM CVRAVER

ET SIBI VIVI FECERE SVB

ASCIA DEDICAVERVNT

IVS LIBRI PENCILLIVS EST

LIB. MILES FVSD LEG

"To the Manes of Aemilius Venustus, soldier of the thirtieth Legion, brave, trusty, and pious, and Librarian to the same Legion, killed in battle. Aemilius Gaius and Venusta, his children, and Aemilia Afrodisia, his freedwoman, their unhappy mother, have caused this monument to be erected, and have dedicated it under the Ascia, the free gift [illegible]."

The function of Librarian to a Legion was that of keeping the accounts of the soldiers.

We passed the rest of the day at M. Puzy's, who wished to conduct us in the evening to the botanic and nursery gardens, on the hill of "La Croix Rousse, près de la déserte," a name given to the convent of nuns which is there situated, because it was formerly a desert place.

This respectable superintendant had an intention of increasing the establishment, and to contrive a more convenient entrance by the *Déserte*, the ground was already obtained. This botanic garden is well situated for the cultivation of plants of every climate, even the Alpines, M. Gilibert, an experienced botanist, has the care of it.

There is yet to be seen in this garden the place which was formerly the Naumachia, and the amphitheatre. The ground is dug, but there remains a vestige of the ancient principal entrance of the Naumachia, and some remains of a vault.

We saw in the court yard of the Desert, a sarcophagus, the inscription of which we copied. It was given in the Lyonnese Journal, but without being explained. The inscription is as follows.

ET MEMORIAE AETERRN
CALPVNIAE SEVERAE
FIMINAE SANCTISSIMAE
VIVA SIBI PONENDVM PRECE
PIT CALPVRNIAE DELICATAE
ET EREDI
ET SVBASCIA DEDICAVIT

"To the manes and the eternal memory of Calphurnia Severa, a pious woman; she caused this monument to be erected for herself, or her survivor Calphurnia, her delicata and her heir, and is dedicated under the *Ascia*."

Calphurnia was a young free woman belonging to Calphurnia Severa, and was the delicata of her mistress, and whom she had made her heir. The Roman ladies called by the name of Delicata, the young slaves whom they brought up to amuse and entertain them. There is seen on a bas-relief, mentioned by Winckelmann, Tychè, Delicata of Clitalia.

On the thirteenth of May, M. Berenger, known as the author of several pieces of poetry, and other interesting productions, had the politeness to invite us to take an excursion to Fourviers: we went along the banks of the Saone in front of the *Loge du Change*; this edifice was began about the end of the seventeenth century, by some Italian merchants: the emblematical statues of the four parts of the world, with which it was ornamented, have been thrown down.

We went into the church of St. Jean to see the celebrated clock made by Lippius in 1598, and repaired by Guillaume Nourrisson 1660, this clock shews the hours, the days, the months, the year, the phases of the moon, the festivals, &c. it has clock-work and a number of moving figures to the different hours, such as we see to many ancient clocks.

The gates of the church are remarkable for the medallions, with figures in relief, which ornament them; many of these figures are very obscene, particularly those which represent the most heinous sins; that of fornication is repeated in several places.

We had been told that in the ancient garden of the fathers of the Trinity, there were some inscriptions; this garden was formerly called the *garden of antiquities*, because of the numerous ancient inscriptions which had been collected there from divers places by the family of Bel-lievre, and the president de Serre, to whom this place has successively belonged; at present there do not remain any traces of the garden; one part of it is a space where they play at bowls; we carefully examined the walls but in vain; we could only discover a small number of stones, which

from some ornamental work appeared to be antique, but without any inscription. We went into the workshop of a hatter who was settled there, the pillars which supported the penthouse which covered his warehouse, were formed of antique stones and fragments of inscriptions extremely defaced; the following is the only one we could decypher:

D M
QVIETI
AETERNAE
T. CASSII
LVCINVLI
MERCATOR
SESSOR ET
CASSIA
VERATIA
FILIO DVLCIS
SIMO ET SIBI
VIVI POSTE
RISQVE SVIS
FECERVNT
ET SVB ACIAD.

"Mercator Sessor and Cassia Veratia have dedicated this monument to the manes and eternal rest of T. Cassius Lucinulus, for this dear son, them and their heirs, and have dedicated it under the Ascia."

I give this account of the inscription that it may be known that there is such a thing in existence.

Spon has published a mosaic found in 1675, in a vineyard which belongs at present to M. Mine. I give this detail because we spent much time in the search of it. The room where this mosaic now is, is generally filled with casks, it is to be hoped that the Prefect of the Department will obtain permission to remove it from this degrading situation, and to place it in the museum. Spon has not well understood the subject, which is very simple, it is a sort of caricature of the gymnastic exercises. We see a figure of Mercury, the god of wrestling, and near, are two wrestlers, one of whom is a winged genius, probably Acratus or Ampelus, the companions of Bacchus, and who always are among his attendants; he is wrestling with an old satyr, who has the feet of a goat, and horns, there is also a grave man clothed with the pallium or mantle, a costume which sufficiently shews him to be Silenus; he acts as master of the exercises; he stretches out his right hand to excite the combatants, and holds

the palm which is to be given to the victor. This mosaic and the remainder of those of Aisnay and of St. Irené, were the only monuments of the kind which were known at Lyon at the time we passed there; since then there has been discovered in the garden of M. Macors, an apothecary, five feet beneath the soil, another mosaic worthy the attention of the curious. It is encircled with foliage; the field of the picture is about twenty feet in length, it represents a large circus, and several chariots with four horses, which dispute the prize; the competitors are distinguished by their several colours, one of them has been overturned, another more fortunate holds a crown, the reward of his victory, above the Carceres are three booths, in each of which sits a magistrate.

My friend M. Delandine thinks the subject here represented commemorates the games which Caligula caused to be celebrated at Lyon. He has entered on this enquiry in details which have attracted the criticism of M. Gay. It appears to me that their dispute has nothing to do with the points in question, it would have been more to the purpose to give an exact design, and a particular description of this monument, which would concur to throw some light on the history of games of the ancients; besides we must not always seek a relation between the subject of a monument and the time in which it was executed, or the spot in which it is placed: it is very possible that a chariot-race might be represented on a mosaic without any reference to the games instituted or restored by Caligula. We have already an example of a similar representation on the fine mosaic of Italica, on which M. Alexandre de la Borde has published a sumptuous work, and of which he has given a learned explanation.

The quarter of Gourguillon is in general inhabited by poor mechanics: the streets have so steep a declivity, that excepting the public road, which has been made somewhat more convenient, it is not possible for carriages to pass; on each side there is a kind of foot path, the steps to which are so very high that in great rains the water must run in torrents. The black colour of the houses, dirty, ill built, and badly glazed, gives to all this quarter a dismal and disgusting appearance; the earth on this declivity is naturally soft, which is the cause of frequent accidents; in the year preceding that of our abode at Lyon, a house which was falling occasioned the overthrow of three others. A similar event took place, according to the historians of Lyon, during the time of a procession, and caused the death of a great number of people.

We were shewn the place where, if we may believe ancient tradition, the blood of the Lyonese martyrs was shed in such abundance, that they were given to be devoured by wild beasts.

Lyon at that time was washed with the blood of its martyrs, as it has since been with that of its citizens.

We went up the mountain of Fourvieres, of considerable height, from whence they derive the name of *Forum vetus*. It was certainly there that the Romans chose to found their city, because they loved to build on the heights. Instead of on the banks of the Saone, they preferred settling on this mountain, and to raise the water thither with incredible difficulty by means of the beautiful aqueduct of which I shall presently make mention. The lower and middle parts of Fourvieres are at present inhabited by the poorest of the people; the streets are dark, unwholesome, and disgusting, but there are on the top of the mountain several country houses that command the entire view of the city and its two rivers.

The tower of the church of Fourvieres is the place from whence the first panorama of Lyon was taken. The point of sight is admirable, the Saone runs slowly and tranquilly, washing the foot of the mountain, and beyond the city the Rhone meets and joins with it and its impetuous waves, and they become mingled together. The quays, the streets, the squares, and the bridges are filled with crouds of people, who all appear actively busy; a perpetual hum, a confused murmur, and the sound of so many various voices is continually heard. Behind the city, on the banks of the two rivers, are chearful gardens and pleasant country houses which command a view of all Dauphiné, and this rich scene is terminated by the magnificent curtain of the stupendous Alps. We visited the convent of the Antiquaille, which is said to have been built on the ruins of the ancient palace of the emperors. Since the suppression of the monasteries, there is established an hospital for vagabonds, prostitutes, beggars, incurables, idiots, &c. attended by charitable nuns, and which place also contains a manufactory to meliorate by industry the situation of the poor.

We were shewn a crypt, or vault, which is said to be the prison where St. Pothin, bishop of Lyon, was confined with his companions; we were shewn also the pillar to which St. Blandine was fastened, to suffer the first tortures of her horrible martyrdom.

We went over different parts of the hospital in hopes of finding some ancient inscriptions, we copied one which is on the wall of a staircase, and attests the affliction of Justinius Secundus, for the loss of a lovely infant who lived but one year and forty-seven days; near this are two other inscriptions, but they are too much decayed to be decyphered.

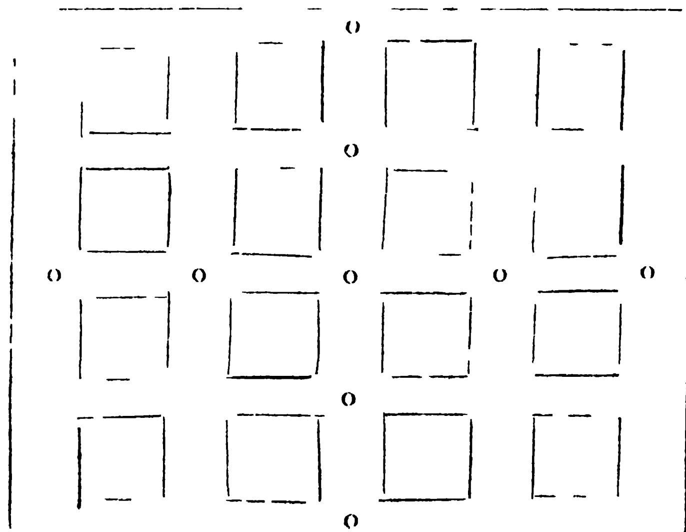
We entered an unwholesome dungeon, where there was a man stretched on straw, who had all the marks of the most compleat insanity; over his head was an inscription, which we wished to

copy, but the stench was so offensive, and the place so disgusting that we had not the courage to do it.

In the vineyard of the ancient convent of the Minimes we saw some remains of porticos, which were probably the vestiges of a theatre, and not of an amphitheatre, as has been supposed, for the place did not seem likely to contain an edifice of the latter description, the seats on which the spectators sat, were, according to custom, supported against the mountain; we saw several hollows which are thought to have been dens for animals that were to fight but it is evident that these vaulted arches were designed to support the last range of seats.

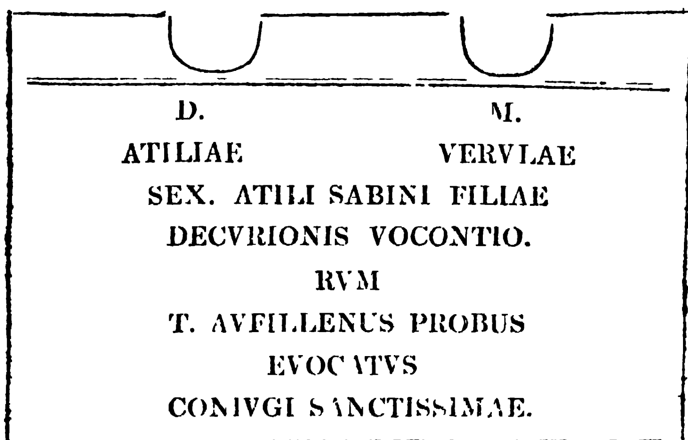
In a vineyard which was a part of the ancient convent of Ursulines is a subterranean building, which is commonly called the *C[illegible] d'eau*, because it is thought that it was designed to keep water for a bath which is situated lower.

The plan of this building is square, and there is a gallery all round, the interior is intersected by three galleries which cross one another the entrance of each of these is formed by an arch; they are all vaulted, the depth is near twelve steps, nine openings with which the vault is pierced seem to have been designed for air, the stone work is very solid and in good preservation, and is covered with a cement as hard as the stone itself. In one of the four corners of the gallery, which goes round the building, there is an opening about six feet above the pavement, which is said to have been made to let water into this reservoir, but this is improbable as there is no way to let it out again, I shall give the plan which I drew of this subterraneous building



We passed the church of St. Just, which is a modern building; the front is in a good stile of architecture; it is composed of four grand Ionic fluted pilasters; above these is a pediment with the word יהוה Jehovah in a glory; this church was rebuilt in the year 1703.

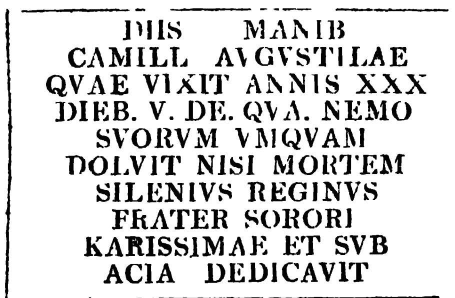
We found on the outside, behind the wall of the choir, the following curious inscription:



D. M.
ATILIAE VERVLAE
SEX. ATILI SABINI FILIAE
DECVRIONIS VOCONTIO.
RVM
T. AVFILLENVS PROBUS
EVOCATVS
CONIVGI SANCTISSIMAE.

To the manes of Atilia Verula, daughter of Sextus Atilius ...nus, decurion of the Vocones, T. Aufillenus Probus dedicates ...o the memory of his faithful spouse."

...all this quarter, to the gate of St. Irénée, we observed the ...ins of altars, tumulary stones, and other fragments of anti... ; we found on one of these the following inscription:



DIIS MANIB
CAMILL AVGVSTILAE
QVAE VIXIT ANNIS XXX
DIEB. V. DE. QVA. NEMO
SVORVM VMQVAM
DOLVIT NISI MORTEM
SILENIVS REGINVS
FRATER SORORI
KARISSIMAE ET SVB
ACIA DEDICAVIT

"To the manes of Camilla Augustilla, who lived thirty years and five days, who never was the cause of sorrow to any one, but when she died. Silenus Reginus her brother has consecrated this monument to the memory of his beloved sister."

There was also found in a neighbouring vineyard another stone, which, without doubt, covered the tomb of a young christian; it is now in the cabinet of M. Gillibert:

IN HOC TVMVLO REQVIESCIT
BONE MEMORIAE VRSUS
QVI VIXIT IN PACE ANNIS
XV OBIETHNON MARCIAS
PC ANASTIE TRVFI VVCC

The last line should be thus understood, Post consulatum ANASTASIi ET RUFI Virorum clarissimorum.

Thus it seems Ursus died at the age of fifteen or twenty years, on the second of the *nones* of March, under the consulate of Anastasius and Rufus, that is to say, in the year 485.

St. Pothin, bishop of Lyon, is one of the most illustrious martyrs. He expired in chains at the age of ninety, two days after being beaten and abused by an outrageous multitude.

St. Irénée, the successor of St. Pothin at the siege of Lyon, was not less distinguished for learning than for piety, he was endowed with a superior mind, an ardent zeal, with a talent for writing, which he employed against the enemies of the faith. The general opinion is, that he suffered martyrdom at Lyon under Septimus Severus, with nineteen thousand christians; it was at this epoch that the mountain of Lyon is said to have been deluged with blood. The church of St. Irénée has been almost in ruins several times; it has nothing remarkable, it is not large, and the numerous reparations which have been made from time to time have destroyed those remains of antiquity which would have made it more venerable. At the time we were there, some ignorant plasterers were endeavouring to efface the last vestiges of the piety of the primitive christians. Many inscriptions of the early ages of the church have been so covered with white-wash that the letters are not to be distinguished; there only remains near the entrance some letters of the incription of the curious mosaic with which the nave of the church was formerly covered; there is only to be distinguished some words, and fragments of words.

This inscription has been copied again, and put up in many places of the church and burying grounds, I have put in small capitals the letters which still remain in the mosaic.

"ingrediens loca tam sacra jam rea pectora tunde.
" posce gemens veniam, lachrymas hic cum prece funde,
" presulis hic irenaei turma jacet sociorum,
" quos per martyrium perduxit ad alta polorum.
" istorum numerum si nosce cupis tibi pando,
" millia dena novemque fuerunt sub duce tanto.
" hinc mulieres et pueri simul excipiuntur
" quos tulit atra manus, nunc christi luce fruuntur."

These verses preserve the remembrance of the massacre of the nineteen thousand christians who were killed, without distinction of age or sex, in the reign of Septimus Severus, for refusing to join in the heathen festivals that made part of the decenalia, which occasioned Racine the younger to say, in his poem of "La Religion:"

> " Tes illustres martyrs sont tes premiers tresors.
> " Opulente cite, la gloire de ces bords, &c.

This excursion on the mountain of Fourvieres may be thought a kind of pilgrimage; every object reminds us of the history of the primitive christians of Lyon; the inscriptions and the monuments of profane history seem there mingled together only to attest the triumph of religion.

The carriage waited for us at the entrance of the church to take us to the aqueducts. In our way we passed the ancient chateau de Francheville, which is in ruins. These gothic remains of the feudal system contrast extremely well with the Roman ruins, and add to the beauty of the landscape; higher up the mountain on the left of the road, begin the beautiful arches of the aqueducts.

These aqueducts, which were to furnish the inhabitants with water and supply the baths, are very remarkable, and have attracted the attention of the learned.

There were two of these aqueducts, the remains of them are yet to be seen. One is called the aqueduct Pila, because their principal streams were re united at the foot of mount Pila; the other is called the aqueduct of Mont-d'Or, because the stream runs to the foot of that mountain.

The waters of the aqueduct Pila are those of the streams of Janon and Gier, which were carried by subterraneous aqueducts over the first arch or bridge. These waters received increase from other streams and rivers which were in the passage of the aqueduct, which might conveniently be conveyed thither.

The aqueduct Pila begins, properly speaking, at the point of re-union of the waters at the Petite-Varizelle near St. Chamond. Its length is supposed, because of its windings, to be more than thirteen leagues, although it is but eight in a strait line.

The country about St. Chamond has a number of vallies, some of them of much greater depth than others, it was therefore impossible to conduct the aqueduct in a straight line: following the direction of the summits of the hills, it would often have been necessary to build several bridges one over the other, which would have cost an immense sum, it was therefore resolved to follow the declivity of the hills till they could conveniently build a bridge. When they had reached the opposite side, the water re-ascended to find its level. When the valley was too deep they made use of leaden pipes or tunnels in the shape of reversed siphons, they then dug a reservoir on the top of the hill where the water collected together; from thence it ran through leaden pipes laid along the decline of the hill to a certain depth; these pipes passed over a bridge constructed across the valley to ascend on the opposite side, where the waters were received in a second reservoir: this method was repeated three times, the first in the valley of the river Garon, between Soucieu and Chaponnost, which is very deep; the second in the valley of Baunan between Chaponnost and Saint-Foy, which is still deeper than the former; and the third in the valley of Saint-Irenée, which is not so deep as either of the others.

One portion of the waters was thus conducted to the great reservoir of the house, callled "l'Angelique;" another portion was poured into a reservoir discovered in a close belonging to M. Arteau about twenty years since; a third was conveyed to the Amphitheatre, of which the ruins are to be seen in the close of the ci-devant Minimes; a fourth to the palace of the emperors; and a fifth to a pleasure house of the emperors, of which there are some subterraneous ruins in the house called "de la Serra."

The construction of these aqueducts prove that the Romans had a very exact method of making levels: they had, however, only a very imperfect instrument, called *chorobates*, to take the necessary declivities, nevertheless they attained a degree of precision in the work, which it is true we have arrived at, but with instruments infinitely more perfect than theirs.

The road of Chaponnost is bordered with white-thorn, privet, wild cherries and eglantine; the country is very fertile.

We slept at M. Berenger's, and returned to Lyon by another road, we were extremely fatigued by the time we arrived at M. Delandine's, where we passed a very agreeable evening.

CHAP. XIX.

THE GODDESS MOTHERS—ALTAR TO ROME AND AUGUSTUS —MOSAIC—THE VETERINARY COLLEGE, &c.

M. DELANDINE and M. Berenger accompanied us in our visit to the temple of Aisnay, where the worship of the Saviour has succeeded to that of an emperor, whom the love of his people had deified. This church is built at the influx of the Rhone and the Saone, not far from the place where sixty gallic nations united in raising an altar to Rome, and Augustus, and founded a college of priests for its service. On the gateway is a celebrated bas-relief which represents three women, the middle figure holds a horn of plenty, two apples and a kind of bowl, the two other figures hold each an apple; beneath is the following inscription:

MAT AVG. PHE. EGN. MED.

Which has been thus interpreted, MATribus AVGustis PHIlenus EGNatius MEDicus, or MEDiomatrix.

I shall not speak of these goddess mothers, on which subject there has already been written so much: suffice it to say this curious monument still remains.

There does not exist the least trace of the mosaic pavement, which is said to have been before the altar of the church, and which presented, according to Spon, "the effigy of the arch-" bishop Amblardus, who rebuilt this church in the eleventh" century."

The roof is supported by pilasters, several of them have the capitals ornamented with small figures. That on the right hand of the altar represents the terrestrial paradise with Adam and Eve tempted by the Devil. On the left we see the Devil conquered by the archangel Michael.

Near the sanctuary are the four enormous columns of granite which are thought to be those formerly placed on the sides of the altar of Augustus, one of which had the figure of a genius, and the other that of victory. It is easily seen that these columns are antique, and that they were not made for this building.

Augustus had not these honours paid him at Rome during his life; but they were decreed to him in the provinces after the defeat of Sextus Pompey.

The temple which was erected to him by the people of Asia, the altars which were dedicated to him at Tarracone, at Narbonne, and at the influx of the Charente and the Sègne, were designed for the worship of this emperor, to whom was also dedicated that of Rome. Among these monuments the altar at Lyon was the most celebrated, but it was not dedicated to Augustus till the reign of Tiberius. This temple had a perpetual pontiff, soothsayers, and diviners: those which served under the titles of priests of the altar of Rome and Augustus were mentioned in several inscriptions, which are lost, but their names are found in many that yet remain.

Caligula instituted, or re-established, with much pomp, the games which were celebrated near this altar; they were called *Ludi miscelli*, probably because of the different sorts of combats with which they were mingled. There were also distributed, as in the Grecian games, prizes of eloquence; which the vanquished were obliged to furnish and offer to the victor.

We finished our day by an interesting walk, and observed with astonishment that vast portion of land acquired from the Rhone, which has been forced to seek another channel, and to keep within the bounds assigned it. This portion has received the name of *Travaux-Perrache*, because the undertaking is ascribed to M. Perrache: it was begun in 1770; the enormous expence of it has already swallowed up the fortunes of several sharers, and there is yet but a part of it finished. The emperor has assigned funds to continue these works, but it is to be doubted whether they will ever be entirely accomplished; what has been done has removed the influx of the Saone and Rhone, and is a great advantage to the city which was before too populous for its extent, and could not be enlarged on any other side because of its being surrounded by mountains, and bordered by these rivers. Prior to these useful works this spot formed an island, which was in the possession of an individual named Mogniat; to protect his territory from the pretensions of the agents of the royal domains, who laid claim to it, this individual adddressed the following verse to Louis the Fourteenth:

> " Qu'est ce pour toi, grande monarque des Gaules,
> " Q'un peu de sable et de gravier?
> " Que faire de mon ile? il n'y croit que des saules,
> " Et tu n'aimes que le laurier.

We returned to the city by the magnificent quay of the Rhone, the greater part of Lyon is built on a flat soil between the Rhone and the Saone, which unite in the west. The Saone crosses the city which it separates from the ancient Lyon in the quarter of Fourvieres. The Rhone runs in a straight line to the south of the city, the quay is very handsome, it is bordered on the

side of the city by the magnificent buildings of the hospital and the Lyceum, and several fine houses. This quay is much frequented towards evening as a promenade.

There are several pleasant places about Lyon such as the walks of Bellecour, those of Perrache, and the terrace of Fourvieres, and without the city there are delightful walk to Ile-Barbe, Chaponnost, Mont-Cindre, and Mont d'Or.

The Veterinary college has immortalized the name of Bourgelat the founder. The success of this institution soon attracted a number of national pupils, and strangers. That of D'Alfort near Paris was founded on the same plan. This college is established in the place of the ancient convent of the nuns of St. Elizabeth, formerly called the house of the two lovers, the garden is picturesque and is well taken care of; at the end is a small hill covered with beautiful trees such as larches and northern pines. We met several of the pupils at their studies in this retired spot.

Springs of water rush spontaneously from this mountain and the basons made to receive these natural fountains are ornamented after the Italian manner, and bear inscriptions: on one we read, DEO FONTI VIVO on another, BONORUM OMNIUM FONTI.

The students remain three years in this college they have exercises for every day. We were shewn the cabinet of dissections, and the preparation room, in which is a marble bust of Bourgelat by Boizot. On the pedestal is this inscription:

ARTIS VETERINARIÆ MAGISTER.

On a tablet of white marble is the following:

CLAUD. BOURGELAT EQUITI
OB INSTITUTAM
ARTEM VETERINARIAM
DISCIPULI MEMORES
ANNUENTE REGE
POSUERE
ANNO M. DCC. LXXX.

We observed in this room a collection of horse shoes, a skeleton of a man on the skeleton of a horse, a man on foot in the attitude of shooting an arrow, and a sturgeon stuffed, which was caught in the Saone, this collection is very inconsiderable and is not in character with the importance and utility of the establishment.

The number of the pupils is about one hundred and sixty, the professors may be applied to, to procure horses and other domestic animals, or to cure them when sick.

We were informed there were many antique inscriptions set in the walls of the ancient monastery of the Génovéfains, and we again took the road to Fourvieres, in hopes of finding some of them, in which we were not disappointed, for there were a considerable number of these monuments, none of which have yet been published; they were discovered by the Génovéfains, when they rebuilt a part of their house, and they had the good sense to set them in the walls of their convent; many of them are interesting, and some broken and defaced: we copied those we thought most curious; among others the following: in the court, at the entrance by the grate, there is in the wall a broken fragment with the inscription

CN. POMPEIO
CASSIANO TR
LATICLAVIO LEG X
FRETENSIS
PIVS AV

It informs us that Cneius Pompeius Cassianus, to whom it is dedicated, was tribune laticlavius, or one of those military tribunes who were of a senatorial family; they were distinguished by the laticlaiva, or garment wrought with purple.

There is found in the territory of Grenoble several inscriptions consecrated to the seasons, as

FLORIDO VERI
FLAVÆ MESSI AVTV
MVSTVLENTO MNO

To the blooming spring; the golden harvest; and the rich autumn.

In the close of a house, called Ploavier, on a grave stone, is the following inscription:

QVIETA MEMORIAEQVE
AETERNAE
TVMIAE PHOEBIANAE
VXORI FIDELISSIMAE
SAPIENTISSIMAE
INTERCETERAS CASTAS
CASTISSIMAE
CVM. QVA. VIXI
ANNIS XXIII SINE
VLLA ANIMI LASIONE
V. R. PHILEROS
V. G. LIB. P. C. ET
SVB ACIA DEDI

R. Phileros survivor, freedman of Gaius survivor, consecrates this stone to Tumina Phœbina, a faithful wife, full of wisdom, and chaster than the most chaste of other women, with whom he lived twenty-three years without any anxiety of mind on her account.

Our next pursuit was to see the house formerly inhabited by the French Columella, the unfortunate abbé Rozier, so celebrated for his learning in the sciences of natural philosophy and agriculture: it is well known that this intelligent and inoffensive scholar was killed by a cannon ball in his chamber during the siege of Lyon. We were told that in this house were also some Roman inscriptions, which was an additional attraction. It is situated in the Rue des Maçons. We discovered it by the device which was written over the door.

LAUDATO INGENTIA RURA.
EXIGUUM COLITO.

"Praise great Possessions, cultivate a little field."

There were not, however, any Roman incsriptions, and we were returning, when chance led us to a neighbouring house, the terrace of which overlooked the whole city. The proprietor of this dwelling, M. Dutilleul. acquainted us that there were several stones with writing on them; but what was our satisfaction when we cast our eyes on the following. which has never been published, although it is worthy of being compared to the altar of the prefectory of which we have already spoken.

:::: ALVT :::: IMP LSEPTIMI
RIVPHF PERTINACIS AVG
ET M AVRELI ANTONINI CAES
IMP DESTINATI ET
IVLIAE AVG MATRIS CASTROR
TOTIVSQVE DOMVS DIVINAE
EORVM ET STATV CCC AVG LVG
TAVROBOLIVM FECERVNT
SERTICLA VALERIANA ET
OPTATIA SPORA EX VOTO
PRAEEVNTE AELIO ANTHOSA
SACERDOTE. SACERDOTIA AEMI
LIA SECVNDILLA TIBICINE FL
RESTITVTO APPARATORE VIRE
IO HERMETIONE..........
INCHOATVM EST SACRVM IIII
NONAS MAIAS CONSVMMA
TVM NONIS EISDEM
T. SEXTIO LATERANO L. CVSPIO
RVFINO COS
L. D. D. D.

" For the health of the emperor Lucius Septemius Severus Pius Pertinax Augustus, and of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus Cesar, emperor elect, and Julia Augusta, mother of Armies and of their illustrious house; and for the state of the colony, Claudia Copia Augusta of Lyon, Sorticio Valeriana, and Optatia Spora have performed this bull offering for the fulfilment of a vow. Ælias Authosa Priest, singing the prayer, Amilia Secundilla being priestess, Flavius Restitutus player of the flute, Vireius Hermetion, Apparitor. The sacred rites began the 4th of the nones of May, and terminated with the nones of the same month under the consulate of T. Sextius Lateranus, and of L. Cuspias Rufinus. The place was bestowed by a decree of the Decurions."

Apparitor was a kind of beadle or officer who had to place the spectators, and to see that order was preserved.

By the above calculation, the ceremony lasted four days.

There were several other inscriptions which we were at the pains to copy, but differing very little from those we have already given, and therefore not sufficiently interesting to give the reader.

We next visited M. Riols, afriend of my brother's, who had a valuable library, which contained several books printed on vellum, in the infancy of the art.

The collection of M. Tacon, surnamed the amateur, presented only some modern antiques, and copies which he would have passed on us for originals; such as a cornelian. It was, as he said, the ring which Pompey gave to Cleopatra. It was after he same manne rthat M. de Crac. pretended that he possessed the sword with which Cæsar killed Pompey. We were however, much pleased with the sight of M. de Boissieu's cabinet at Belle-cour. M. de Boisseu is much respected for the mildness of his character, and the affability of his manners, and admired for his genius. This real amateur has drawn a number of beautiful designs in pencil; he excels chiefly in landscape; he also engraves very well: his work consists of eighty-six pieces.

We saw at the house of a young artist, M. Grobon, who resided on the quay of the Trone, a view of Lyon: it is extremely correct and beautiful. It is to be hoped he will have this charming work engraved.

We had passed Ile-barbe without stopping: we now determined on an excursion thither, hoping to find some vestiges of antiquity, a young, handsome, and robust boat woman took us in her skiff. At Lyon the boats are steered by women, and are tracked up the canals by their husbands. We passed along the suburb Serin, in front of the rock called Pierre-scise, where was a castle, which served as a state prison; but it is now entirely destroyed. We

arrived at l'Ile-Barbe, formerly called Barbara, on account of its sterility. The church and monastery are entirely in ruins. This island, situated in the middle of the Saone, presents several picturesque landscapes and beautiful prospects, which make it a very charming place: it is the fashionable promenade of the inhabitants of Lyon. On our return our handsome boat-woman told us the names of all the country-houses in sight; la Sauvagére, the residence of M. Coudere; la Jolivette, la Four de la belle Allemande, la Paisible, la Petite Claie, &c. &c.

We now prepared to quit Lyon on the morrow, and we passed the day in visiting the principal manufactories of silk, and other articles of trade; the number of them at present is about seven thousand, and they are not all employed. The manufactories of muslin, of cloth, and of paper, for the walls of our apartments, have fallen off since the year 1787.

Our carriage was in the boat, the watermen were ready, we had taken leave of our friends, and were just going to embark, when we were told of an antique piece of sculpture, at a house belonging to Misses de la Balmondiere; we repaired thither, but it was with great difficulty that we obtained permission to see it. We were at length admitted into a stable, where was a magnificent sarcophagus of marble, used as a washing stool; it is ornamented on the three sides with sculpture, which represents a hunting-match. This subject is frequently to be seen on monuments, probably because there is thought to be some analogy between the perils which belong to the chace, and those to which we are exposed in our journey through life.

The principal side represents a chase, probably that of the wild boar of Calydon. The ancients attached great importance to this kind of exercise, which was to deliver a country from some monstrous animal that ravaged it at the time. The chase of Calydon is one of the most celebrated, and many Grecian families esteem it an honour to be descended from those heroes who took part in it; while mythography has preserved the names of those princes who united in that memorable expedition. We saw here represented the hunters which surrounded the terrible boar; these heroes must be Mopsus, Nestor, the two sons of Tyndarus, &c. It is impossible to assign to each of them the proper name. According to Ovid this fierce animal stood at bay, and dispersed the dogs set upon him; we saw him here forcing through every obstacle. The wounded hunter should be Telamon, who was thrown from his horse at the foot of a tree; on the trunk, which has occasioned his fall are two birds; near the tree is Ancaeus, who is striking at the animal with his club, but he pays for his temerity with his life. Near them is another, probably Peleus, who supports Ancaeus: farther off is

Atalanta, who first wounded the boar with a dart; at her side is Meleager.

The second side represents Meleager, sitting in the midst of his companions, who congratulate him on his victory; a woman who is near him, half naked, appears to be the nymph who presides over the country: had she been meant for Atalanta, she would have been cloathed as a huntress.

On the third side is the chase of a lion, which has no connection with the preceding subject. We embarked, and quitted with regret, a city so celebrated for its riches and active industry, and which misfortune has made interesting. On every side we saw places which had witnessed the most atrocious crimes, terrible disasters, and grievous calamities; but it is to be hoped, these evils have now ceased.

Lyon has, like Paris, many establishments for public convenience, such as Agency Offices, Offices of Insurance against Fire, a Post Office, Hackney-coaches, several daily Papers, &c.

The principal mansions are l'Hotel des Ambassadeurs, Place Bellecour, and l'Hotel du Parc, on the Place des Teneaux.

A long stay at Lyon is very expensive, as it is necessary to have to do with two exorbitant characters, the maitre de l'hotel, and the traiteur. To those who stay any length of time it is much more economical to hire ready furnished apartments on one of the quays, and to dine at a table d'hote, of which there are several at different prices. This is generally the best method in all great towns.

The Lyonese devote themselves to commerce, but they are not strangers to the muses: and to the honour of the city, those who have but little taste themselves for literature, are eager to contribute to the preservation and support of the literary establishments.

Lyon has produced several persons celebrated in the arts, the sciences, and literature; among these are Louisa Labbé, the poetess; Symphorien Champier, Menestrier, Terrasson, Stella, Coysevox, the Coustous. Among those now living are M. M. Bossut, de Fleurieu, Gilibert, Patrin, Sionest, Delisle-de-Salle, Lescallier, de Boissieu, Delandine, Chinard, Degerando, Lemontey, Rondelet, &c.

CHAP. XX.

DEPARTURE FROM LYON—SAINT GENIS—PIERRE BENITE—GOLD-FINDERS—VOYAGE ON THE RHONE—VERNAISON—GIVORS—CANAL—LOIRE ST. COLUMBE—INSCRIPTIONS—ALLOBROGES—VIENNE—ANTIQUE MONUMENTS—INSCRIPTION OF ANCIENT COMEDIANS—ST. MAURICE—TOMB OF JEROME DE VILLARS—EXTRAORDINARY MOTTO—LA GERE—MANUFACTORIES—BUILDING OF FLINT STONES—DEPARTURE FROM VIENNE—MONT PILAT, &c.

WE had bargained with a contractor to take us as far as Avignon for six louis, and as we resolved to be at liberty to stop wherever any thing curious or interesting came in our way, we agreed to give five francs per day to the two watermen all the time they were with us, and in the morning our carriage was put aboard the boat.

We left our friends with regret, and at five o'clock we embarked from the quay of the Saone. We were soon near the *Travaux Perrache*, and passed under the bridge, which also bears the name of *Perrache*. We observed several handsome country houses in our way; on the right hand was *la Mulatiére*, which belongs to M. Henry, a merchant of Lyon. After passing the peninsula, we found ourselves on the Rhone. We there saw the *Chateau d Oullins*, which is pleasantly situated on the side of a hill, the top of which is very woody; a little higher is *Saint-Genis*. A thick smoke occasioned us to observe that we were passing *Pierre-Bénite*, a glass manufactory, which belongs to *M. Ainard*. The ruins of the *chateau de Chaponest*, which is built on a rock, are now on the banks of the Rhone; although this river, twenty years ago, was more than a quarter of a league distant.

In front of Irigny is a large house called *la maison-Vequelin*, where we saw some men in rags, employed in washing the sand to separate it from the gold dust; those who follow this occupation are called *orpailleurs*. This pursuit is sometimes very productive, but much oftner otherwise.

We shortly after arrived at *Vernaison*; in this voyage we saw the old Lyonese territory on the right, and Dauphiné on the left.

We intended sleeping at Vienne, but it was night when we reached Givors. This great town contains an extensive glass manufactory: it is the oldest establishment of the kind; it was built by two brothers named Robichon, and still remains in the same family. The houses are built round the elbow formed by the Rhone, which gives a very picturesque effect. There is at Givors a canal supplied by the waters of the river Gier, which falls from Mount Pila: it would be a great advantage if this canal could be continued as far as Loire.

We landed and passed the night at Loire, a village situated a little farther on; and on Saturday the nineteenth of May, we again set off at four o'clock in the morning: we had desired the watermen to give us the meeting at the point of the island: but as we did not find them there, we took the road to Vienne on foot, going by the skirts of the mountains on the banks of the Rhone. A continual succession of islands for a considerable time hid the river from our sight: at length, at the extremity of these islands, we were joined by our boat.

We landed at St. Colombe, opposite to Vienne, at six o'clock, to visit M. Cochard, who was to shew us some antiquities; and we there saw some bricks, some *amphores*, and pieces of burnt earth in the shape of coins, with a hole at the edge; there was one on which was the word BATTAIOS, which is probably the name of the maker. It appeared to be designed for a weight.

M. Cochard accompanied us to a vault which is under the vineyard of M. Guillaume, and communicates with several others, it is thought to be an *ergastule*, or prison, in which the ancient Romans confined their slaves.

We next were shewn a sarcophagus, which serves to receive the waters of a fountain, and which has this inscription.

QUIETI AETERNAE
SILVANI FORTVNATI
CASSIA FORTVNATA FILIA ET
CASSIA LAIS MARITO OPTIMO
SARCOPHAGUM ET SIBI VIVA
D M
IVXTA LVDICRVM INFERIVS

"The bones and the ashes of Silvanus Fortunatus had been deposited in this sarcophagus by Cassia Lais, his wife, and Cassia Fortunata, his daughter; and it had been put over some place where the public games were held."

There remains only one pillar of the ancient bridge which

formerly crossed from St Columbe to Vienne. *Near the shore are the ruins of the tower which was its defence; it was repaired* under Philip de Valois. We passed the Rhone in our boat, and were soon in the town of Vienne, and quitted the territory of the ancient *Segusiani* to enter that of the *Allobroges*.

Those who travel by land from Lyon to Vienne, cross a hilly country, at some distance from the Rhone, where are seen few habitations. The cultivation on each side of the road is better than in the other parts: there are fields of corn, and some vines; and at a distance the mountains, which certainly have but a barren appearance. Before we reach Vienne, we cross a beautiful valley between the Rhone and the mountains: the foot of the rocks is planted with vines, and the valley itself produces corn. The entrance of the town is a pleasant promenade.

The Allobroges were a courageous people, who were often at war with the Romans: they were conquered by Domitius Ænobarbus, and Fabius Maximus, who received the name of *Allobrox*: these people at length became subject to Cæsar. The boundaries of their territory were the Rhone, the Isére, and the Alps.

Vienne, like all other ancient and powerful places has its mythological and fabulous history. According to the prelate Adon, a credulous writer, who lived in the time of Charles the Bald, it was founded before the year of the world 3225, by Venerius, who had been banished from Africa, and it was named *Bienna*, from which is derived Vienne, because it was built in two years (*biennio*): thus they must have spoken Latin in Dauphiné nearly twenty years before the foundation of Rome. Lavinius the Dominican asserts, that Allobrox, king of the Celts, was the founder of Vienne: but the existence of this Allobrox is quite as fabulous as that of Venerius. Etienne de Byzance, relates, that Vienne was founded by the Cretans, who had been compelled to abandon their own island; and after a long voyage they went up the Rhone, and settled in this place, which they called *Bianna*, from the name of a young girl, who, as she was dancing, had fallen down a precipice.

All that can be said for certain of this town, which is, after Grenoble, the most considerable in the department of the *Isére*, is, that it was the principal place of the nation of the Allobroges; and that it became one of the most opulent cities of the Narbonnoise. Pliny speaks of it as a colony, a distinction it received in the reign of Tiberius. It was to obtain for the inhabitants the rights of Roman citizens, that Claudius delivered the discourse in the senate, which has been preserved to posterity by Tacitus, and which may be read on the celebrated tables of Lyons. When the ancient Narbonnoise was divided into

several provinces, Vienne became the capital of that which was distinguished by the name of Viennoise.

Vienne after the inroads of the barbarians, was resigned to the Bourgundians, by Honorius. After the death of Rodolphus the Third, Dauphiné became subject to the kings of Germany. Several cities refused to join in this union, and put themselves under the protection of the bishops: Vienne was one of the number, which is the reason the bishop of Vienne has the title of prince. Vienne at length acknowledged Louis XI. for its sovereign.

Near the place where we landed are the remains of an old tower, which is called Pilate's tower, from a fabulous tradition believed among the common people. They say that Pilate having been confined in this tower by order of Caligula, hanged himself. But as the tower only received this name about five hundred years ago, it probably owes the appellation to an ancient pile of the bridge, which is well known to have been built in this place by the Romans.

Our first wish was to see M. Schneyder, keeper of the museum of Vienne, who had made a collection of drawings of the numerous monuments which have been discovered in this city. We heard with regret that he was gone to Lyons: fortunately M. Guillermain, the mayor of the town, and M. Boissat, his assistant, had the rooms opened for us where these collections were kept.

There has been found a considerable number of fragments of antiquity, and every day some new discovery adds to the collection.

The museum of Vienne and the cabinet of M. Schneyder, contain many subjects which have never been copied. We there saw the drawing of a beautiful mosaic, which was found in a vineyard at St. Colombe, in the year 1773; the proprietor destroyed it to rid himself of the trouble occasioned by the great number of curious people who came to see it.

M. Schneyder was of opinion that this mosaic represented the rape of the Sabines, and it was the general opinion in Vienne: but we know that the ancient Romans seldom represented subjects taken from their own history, and if so many false explanations have been spread abroad, it is because travellers will generally explain the subjects by the Roman history.

As soon as I saw this drawing I perceived that this mosaic represented the subject of Achilles, discovered among the daughters of Lycomedes. This young hero is clothed in a long tunic; he has just taken hold of a lance, and a shield is at his feet; the calathus or work-basket, which indicates the sort of employment in which he was occupied in the *gynæceum*, or women's apart-

ment of Deidamia is overturned, the princess and her women appear frightened, and Ulysses rejoices at the success of his stratagem, while Agyrtes sounds the trumpet to excite a greater degree of ardour in the breast of Achilles, this subject occupies the middle of the mosaic; the rest is in compartments, in which is distinguished heads of Medusa, and of the seasons.

There were in this cabinet many fragments of inscriptions, and other antiquities such as amphores, bricks, lamps in bronze &c. &c.

Among the pictures we observed one which represented a feast given in the saloon of Catharine de Medicis; it is curious for the variety of costumes which it presents, and because it preserves several portraits.

We next visited the free drawing school. This school according to the inscription over the door was founded in 1775; it has twenty pupils, who receive lessons from M. Schneyder, this school also contains some monuments. There are two large mosaics which have been dug up entire, and a third which is a little damaged; there are also in these rooms many fragments of other mosaics, and divers inscriptions, of which the following are the principal.

MERCVRIO
AVG SACR
VOTO SVSCEP
DAPIORIVS DVFI
VSANTESTIANVS ET
DAPIORIVS NVMIDA
ANTESTIANVS
P. D. F.

This stone is offered to Mercury the protector of the imperial house, by Dapiorius, Dufius, Antestianus, according to a vow he had made.

The following is much more curious:

SCENI
ASIATICIA
NI ET
QVI IN EO
DEM COR
PORE SVNT
VIVI SIBI FE
CERVNT

Birnard de la Bastie, asserted that it was constructed in Asia, in the time of Alexander the Great by the companies of comedians; that these companies were supported in that country after it became subject to the Romans, and that they had sent colonies into the east; and in support of that opinion he quotes this inscription at Vienne, thus he understands the *scenici Asiaticiani*, to be Asiatic comedians settled at Vienne, where they formed a permanent company and where they had a sepulture in common. But the word *Asiatic* is in the Latin Asiaticus and not Asiaticianus, and I rather believe that this word means the manager of the company under the name by which he was known, and that they were called *Scenici Asiaticiani*, that is to say the comedians of Asiaticus, as we now say the comedians of Audinot, of Nicolet, or of Montansier. They had caused to be built a vault for the company, and for all who belonged to it, such as scene painters, scene shifters &c. &c.

There is also an episcopal chair, which is curiously carved in wood.

The library contains seven thousand five hundred volumes, among which are many valuable books, as usual, but none that are particularly remarkable.

They have given the name of rûe de la Regeneration to the street which was formerly called rûe du Bordel; because, in the time when the police ordered that all the women of ill-fame should live in the same place, this was the street which they inhabited; this street was near the market where swine and goats were sold.

The cathedral of St. Maurice was the next subject of our observation. This magnificent edifice has been beautified successively from the pious regard of the ancient prelates of Vienne, and the sovereigns of the province: it is built on a platform, to which you ascend by twenty-eight steps, which makes it in some degree resemble the temples of antiquity. The gateway was enriched with a great number of figures in haut-relief: the baron des Adrets had already thrown down several during the religious wars; but at the time of the revolution all the figures were shockingly mutilated. The interior of the building is very beautiful, very light, and without any superfluous ornaments, but there is every where to be seen the traces of sacrilegious devastation.

We observed the vessel for the holy water, which is of very fine marble, from the ruins of an antique temple. The altar of the choir is covered with antique green marble, taken from a beautiful column, which had been found at St. Colombe. Round the choir is a friezed work, composed of foliage, and heads of men and animals. Behind the altar is the archiepiscopal chair, fixed to the wall.

There is, in the nave, the remains of a zodiac painted in fresco, with an inscription very much defaced. Another fresco represents divers subjects from the old and new Testament, but this also is much injured, there yet remains eight windows of painted glass, on which are represented the apostles.

The tomb of Jerome de Villars an archbishop of Vienne, who died in 1626, is still entire, on which was the excellent motto of that worthy prelate, ΚΡΑΤΑΙΑ ΩΣ ΘΑΝΑΤΟΣ Η ΑΓΑΠΗ, "Charity is as strong as death," that is to say, charity and death overcome every obstacle.

The tomb of Armand de Montmorin, who died in 1713, is a sculpture of distinguished workmanship; it was done at Rome, by Slodtz, and brought to Vienne in 1747. The prelate, clothed with the chape, or ecclesiastic cloak, is sitting on a sarcophagus before a pyramid, and holds, with his left, the right hand of Oswald, the cardinal of the tower of Auvergne, who erected this monument to his memory; he points with the right hand to the archiepiscopal mitre and cross, which were placed on a cushion; he seems to tell him that these marks of dignity are destined for him, and that he will one day succeed him: a figure, which represents Religion, preserves the last words of the prelate, which are those passages of the epistle of St. Paul to Timothy on the duties of a bishop.

The town of Vienne is built on a flat and narrow soil, which extends from the banks of the Rhone between two chains of mountains, in the middle of which runs the Gier; these mountains are bleak and sterile, it is the road from Vienne to Grenoble. If this place be not very pleasant we are recompensed by the prospect of the Rhone, Sainte-Colombe, and the beautiful appearance of the neighbouring country.

We were accompanied by some friends to see the several workshops situated on the little river Gier, so valuable to the town of Vienne, in giving motion to so many engines. The waters descend from the mountains, and there are dams from distance to distance, made by little walls, over which the stream falls in cascades: they never freeze in winter, and they are seen to smoke in the coldest weather, while in summer this river is never dried up, but sometimes in winter it overflows, which happened in 1750: there is over it a stone bridge, called Pont de St. Sévére.

We visited the cloth manufactory of Messrs. Charret, which is well worthy of notice. We saw next a silk mill, and afterwards a manufactory for iron wire, and a fulling mill; there are also founderies of copper, &c. &c. Half way up the mountain to which these works are attached, are the remains of several mouths

of the ancient aqueducts, which had served to convey the waters of the Gier to the naumachia, and the baths of the city. On the mountain are the ruins of a square tower called *Pipet*: this edifice was formerly called *Pompeiacum*, because they pretend that Pompey, in his way to Spain, caused it to be fortified.

The day was closed when we returned to the interior of the city. We proposed to rise with the sun, to see the valuable monuments which we had not yet examined.

Although stone is very good and sufficiently plenty in this department, yet many of the houses are of clay. Several of these kind of houses are thirty feet high: the foundations are of common brick work. There is also another way of constructing walls and houses of the flint stones which are picked up in the fields, or in the bed of the Rhone: they give to each layer of flints a different direction, which forms a kind of mosaic.

In the morning we visited the celebrated abbey of St. Pierre. The monastery, which was founded the ninth century, has been destroyed: but the church which contains so many pious testimonies of the faith of our forefathers, yet remains, with the three groups with which the entrance is adorned. One represents a lion and a youth, whom the animal seems ready to tear in pieces. These sculptures have been the source of many fables. According to the tradition, an angel brought them from Rome in one night, as a pledge of the special regard of the Almighty for that place; and that Virgil, whom in the middle ages they considered as a great magician, was the sculptor of these figures. Monsters formerly supported columns with lanterns on the tops of each; they were without doubt designed to give light to the faithful, who came to pray in this temple on the vigils of the days dedicated to the holy martyrs.

The church inspires a religious veneration, by the recollection of the saints of whom it is said to be the tomb: many ornaments which would at this time be valuable monuments of the middle age, have been destroyed; the curious paintings have been effaced; but many inscriptions remain, and these venerable marbles have preserved the names of many of the primitive christians of Vienne.

The curious epitaph of Girard, the governor of Vienne in 1045, is yet preserved, and that of the abbot Guillaume, who died in 1224; that also of abbot Léonien, who lived under the pontificate of St. Avitus: the tomb of this last, which had been destroyed in the religious wars, was repaired under Charles the Sixth.

In the midst of these memorials of the piety of the primitive

christians of Vienne, it is singular to observe any remains of the worship of the heathens; but there is now against a wall the following curious inscription to the *goddess mothers,* of whom we have before made mention.

MATRIS AVGVSTIS
CATITIVS SEDVLVS
EX VOTO

To the Augusts mothers, Catitius Sedulius, according to a vow.

Of so many epitaphs, which were to preserve the names of princes, scholars, and men distinguished for learning and piety, there remain few besides those I have mentioned; their tombs disappeared even long before the revolution, which proves the many changes which this ancient edifice has experienced.

Our next pursuit was to see the monument called *l'Aiguille,* which is in a plain, half a quarter of a league from Vienne, between the great road and the Rhone; it is a pyramid composed of several layers of large square stones, and has steps on the four sides; it is constructed on a body of square architecture, each angle of which is ornamented with a column, and each front pierced with an arch, so that one may cross from side to side, under the pyramid. These walls support a flat roof or top, on the middle of which is placed the pyramid. This monument which is seventy-two feet in height, bears many marks of outrage occasioned by people dragging out the iron work. A Milanese who had bought the field where it stands had begun to destroy it, and had it not been for the obstinate resistance of the learned *Pierre de Brissac,* at that time chief justice of Vienne, this curious and valuable monument would have been levelled with the ground. During the time of terror and confusion, they had placed on this *aiguille*, an enormous bar of iron, which supports a large tin vane, and the cap of liberty. It is to be feared that this enormous vane, agitated incessantly by the wind, may overturn this interesting and singular monument: it ought therefore to be taken down, and a stone which is wanting in the body of the building ought to be replaced. This monument is very beautiful, and has an appearance of grandeur and a solidity which inspires veneration.

Antiquarians have been much puzzled, in endeavouring to discover on what occasion this monument was erected. According

to vulgar tradition, it is the tomb of Pontius Pilate; in short there are many opinions concerning it: but how is it possible to decide on such a subject, as it bears neither figures nor inscription: M. Schneyder, who got into the interior by means of a hole which he had frequently observed, found nothing there; this entrance is now shut with a small iron gate. All that can be said of this monument is, that it appears to have been built in the time of the first emperors; it was probably the tomb of some distinguished personage, whose name is not known.

We saw at the top of the street called *Rue des Serruriers l'Arc de triomphe*, or *Porte triomphale*. It is an arch of which the original intention is no longer known: it is ornamented in the interior with heads of satyrs, which makes it probable that it might have been part of a theatre. They have set in the wall a Gallic statue, which is neither in the same stile nor of the same age, and which could not have belonged to this edifice.

At the entrance of the church of St. Audeé-le-bas, there are two fine columns of marble. This monastery was founded by Duke Ancemond: his epitaph yet remains, as does that of Richard de Sallery, who was buried here about the year 1200.

This church contains many other inscriptions of the twelfth, the thirteenth, and the following centuries, on fine white marble.

An antique marble capital, the interior of which is hollowed, serves for a baptismal font.

We last visited the edifice, called the Temple of Augustus. It is of the Corinthian order, sixty feet long and forty in width, and was open on every side.

The columns are twenty-five feet in heighth including the bases and capitals. These elegant columns were fluted: but where the spaces were filled up to alter the building into a church, some barbarous hands broke the fluting, and have so incorporated the pillars with the walls, that it is with difficulty they are distinguished.

There are many ill founded conjectures concerning, this temple, which I shall not quote. If it was built in honour of Augustus and Livia, as has been supposed, it must have been in the reign of Tiberius; for, during his life the worship of Augustus was associated with that of Rome, and not with that of Livia.

This church had been bestowed on the nuns and consecrated to *Notre-Dame de la Vie*; it is at present the hall of the tribunal of commerce.

We went to see the beautiful marble group, which was found in the vineyard of a country-woman, in the year VI. of the Revolution: it represents two children almost as large as life, the head of one of them is bound round with a ribband: he holds in the left hand a dove, which the other attempts to take from him, and bites him in the right arm to make him loose it. Near each of them is the trunk of a tree: the one on the side of him who holds the bird, is encircled by a serpent; a lizard is climbing up the other and seizing a butterfly. This charming group is in the most perfect preservation. I wished much to possess it; but although the proprietor is a poor woman, she would not sell it; she esteems this group as a talisman which protects her. " Never (said she) will I part with these children, these pretty angels which heaven has sent for good-luck to my house."

The climate of part of ci-devant Dauphiné, situated between the Isère and the Rhone, is more temperate than that nearer Grenoble; and the nigher we approach Vienne, the air becomes still milder. The banks of the Rhone present a hot country, which is celebrated for the quality of its wines.

The air of this country, and particularly near the Rhone, is very healthy, no endemic or local distemper affects the population. They breed very few horses, but that of asses is very fine, and it is common to speak of *post-asses*: one may travel in this manner all the way from Lyon to Marseilles. Many of the people of the country have no other beast for the saddle than these humble coursers: the peasants let them to hire for a moderate sum. These animals know their way so well, that they never quit the path they have been accustomed to take, neither will they slacken or mend their pace. It is in vain to attempt to turn them out of this direction; they will rather return to whence they came, or they will expire under the stroke.

Among other quadrupeds common in this country may be reckoned the roebuck, the hedgehog, the otter, &c. &c. The race of horned cattle improves by crossing the breed with those of Switzerland and Holland; they also begin to encourage the breed of Spanish sheep.

We had been but thirty-six hours at Vienne, and nevertheless had reaped a plentiful harvest. After walking the whole morning we dined with the mayor, who would have detained us longer: but although the day was much advanced, we decided upon sleeping at Condrieux, that we might reach Valence on the following morning.

We re-embarked at four o'clock, the 20th of May. On leaving Vienne we saw St. Colombe on the right bank of the river,

and on the left the public baths, the plain of the Aiguille, and the great road planted with mulberry trees and chesnuts; and soon discovered that luxuriant shore, the red wines of which ae so celebrated. These wines go to Paris by the Saone, the canal of Charollois, and the Seine. We saw from far the little town of Auberive, and the place called Péage de Rossillon, where are still on an eminence the ruins of another little town and of a chateau; the environs appear pleasant, though the ground is covered with so prodigious a number of flint stones, that the earth is scarcely to be perceived: the numerous mulberry trees which grow there, give the country the appearance of an orchard.

The peasants seem to be laborious; but an ungrateful soil refuses to recompense their toil and industry. A short time before we reached Condrieux, we saw on the right hand the Chateau de Cordelon, which has been a long time the retreat of the advocate general M. Servan. At seven o'clock we arrived at the port of Condrieux.

We took a short walk before night, and reached the town, which is at some distance from the port of Condrieux; it has nothing remarkable; the port is well situated, and they carry on a great trade in the wine of the country. Most of the boatmen of the Rhone have their habitations at Condrieux, and they generally find a pretext to stop there some time.

The people here spread on the corn fields the scrapings of horn, which comes from the cutleries of St. Etienne en Forêt; this animal substance is an excellent manure.

CHAP. XXI.

SAINT VALIERE—ANECDOTE—TOURNON—THE COLLEGE—TAUROBOLIUM—INSCRIPTION—THE RHONE—FISH—THE ISERE—VALENCE—CABINET OF M. DE SUCY—ANTIQUES—CHURCH OF ST. APOLLINAIRE—MAUSOLEUM—EPISCOPAL PALACE.

AFTER leaving Condrieux, we had on the left hand the little town of St. Valiere, where we landed, and walked the length of the town: there are some hat manufactories and silk mills,

which are put in motion by the little river Loz. We got into our boat again at the other extremity of the town.

They told us at Valence of an imposition which would be laughable, if it were not at the same time deserving of punishment; it was practised on a merchant of Smyrna, by the inn-keeper of St. Valiere, who also kept the post. The merchant was probably one of those Greeks who came into France, about the time of the termination of the existence of the directory, to demand payment of a contract he had for corn &c. he had also to deliver letters to M. de St. Valiere from his brother. The good man asked where he lived, and although the house was almost in the town, he was told by the inn-keeper, who did not chuse to lose a customer, that it was near two leagues distant, at the same time advising him not to go till the next day; but as the merchant was in haste, he ordered supper early, and, calculating the distance, about eight o'clock he got into his chaise. The postilion who had his cue, conducted him by a circuitous rout more than a post out of his way before he arrived at the house. The merchant delivered his letters, and as he spoke very little French, the conversation was short, the postilion drove him back the same way, and he was made to pay three posts for a distance he might have gone in ten minutes.

The road as far as Ponsaye, is bad and mountainous, but there it becomes pleasant and convenient. In our way we met a numerous fleet of boats, the watermen of the Rhone call these kind of flotillas "*trains:*" they are obliged to have a great number of horses to draw them against the stream to Lyon On one of these barges there was a pigeon-house, the doves, like those of Noah's Ark, went to seek their food on land and then returned to their mates on board. At noon we passed a large flat rock, which is exactly in the middle of the Rhone, called by the watermen Table du Roi.

At half past twelve we arrived at Tournon, and landed to see the college. We were extremely pleased to observe the excellent order maintained in this establishment, which at that time contained two hundred and twenty youths. The house is situated at the end of the town, and is very large; it is surrounded by a large space of ground, which is planted with trees, for the recreation of the scholars. The manner in which they are lodged deserves to be mentioned with commendation, each pupil has a bed to himself in a little closet, which contains that piece of furniture and one chair. The fronts of these closets are shut with a folding door, the upper part of which is latticed, that the visitor may see the interior. The closets are lofty, and a free cir-

culation of air is always preserved by means of openings in and above the door; there are also two square holes in the opposite wall, and two similar ones at each end. Over each door there hangs a plate, with the numerical sign of the pupil who sleeps there.

There are two ranges of these sleeping rooms back to back; these are surrounded by galleries, the windows of which are closed at night, that the moist air may not injure the health of the pupils; these galleries have a few lamps in them during the night.

The diet of the pupils is particularly attended to, and their instruction is equally well directed: the boys are received at the age of eight or nine years, but none are admitted who are above twelve. The parents may come and see their children, but they do not enter the house; and the pupils never go out of the college, but to return no more. In this manner, they become used to the system of the house, and do not feel those anxious desires to quit, or those fears of returning, which make children constantly restless and uneasy, who are accustomed often to leave school.

These boys wear a uniform, and the most perfect equality reigns among them. The pension or sum for board is 600 francs, including medical care, and the masters for accomplishments, &c. &c.

On the walls of the galleries and corridors, there are written in large characters, the terminations of the declensions and of the conjugations. In some of the corridors there are along the upper part of the walls different observations, which relate to remarkable epochs in history. This presents to the pupils the opportunity of instruction, even in their hours of recreation.

The principal master is M. Verdet, who deserves all the encouragement which he has received from the government.

There is a library in this establishment, which is not very considerable, but nevertheless contains many excellent works for the use of the pupils. There is also in this library an excellent telescope, which M. Verdet intends to place in a small observatory, to be constructed on the summit of the dome.

Tain is directly opposite Tournon, on the left side of the Rhone, in a small valley between the mountains and the river. It had been suggested to us to visit M. Chalieu, an ecclesiastic, venerable for his age, and respectable for his learning and virtues. With this intent, we crossed the Rhone, proposing at the

same time to transcribe the curious taurobolic inscription, which has been mentioned by many authors, but not delineated, and always ill copied.

There is on the banks of the river a column with this inscription: "*The curious antique monument which was to be seen here, is at the town hall.*"

We first went to make our visit to the respectable Abbé Chalieu. This venerable old man lives with one of his nephews, who is a plain mechanic, and to whom it is supposed he intends to leave his small collection of gold medals.

M Chalieu conducted us to the town-hall, where, according to his advice, the taurobolic inscription had been placed. The traces of the bull's head are plainly to be seen, as are those of the taurobolic sword, which is represented on both sides.

This inscription was found near two hundred years ago under the chapel of the hermitage, that has given the name to the mountain which produces such excellent wine. The hermit placed it at the entrance of his retreat, where it attracted the curious, and procured him many alms. In 1724, some English connoisseurs travelled as far as the Rhone to obtain this prize; but the mayor of the town opposed their design, and had it placed at Tain, where it remained a considerable time exposed to the weather, and to the depredations of the children of the place. M. Chalieu has had it removed, more properly to the town-hall.

The inscription has already been published many times, but always incorrectly. It is as follows:

-DOMVVSQ DIVI
NAE COLON COPIAE CLAVD AVG LVG
TAVROBOLIVM FECIT Q AQVIVS ANTONIA
NVS PONTIF PERPETVVS

(*Here is the figure of a Bull's Head.*)

EX VATICINATIONE PVSONI IVLIANI ARCHI
GALLI INCHOATVM XII KAL MAI CONSVM
MATVM VIIII KAL MAI L EGGIO MARVLLO
CN PAPIRIO AELIANO COS PRAEEVNTE
AELIO C——————SACERDOTE TIBICINE
ALBIO VERINO

"For the preservation of the Emperor Lucius Ælius Aurelius Commodus, and of all the divine house, and of the Colony Copia Claudia Augusta of Lyon, Quintus Aquius Antonianus perpetual Pontiff, has consecrated a Taurobolium, according to the request of Pusonius Julianus Archigallus. It was begun the XII of the Calends of May, and completed the IX of the Calends of May. L. Eggius Marullus et Cneius Papirius Ælianus being consuls, under the presidency of Ælius C— Priest—Albius Verinus being flute-player."

We had intended to sleep at Valence, but we had spent too much time in the inspection of the taurobolium. M. Chalieu told us of an inscription which was at the church of *St. Jean de Musol*, on the right side of the Rhone about half a league from Tournon; we therefore resolved to stay at *Tain*, and go from thence very early in the morning. We crossed the Rhone: M. Chalieu accompanied us, and the good old man walked with astonishing vigour.

The stone on which this inscription is written in very beautiful characters, forms a part of the building at one of the angles of the church.

IMP CAES DIVI
TRAIANIPARTHICI
FIL DIVI NERVAE
NEPOTI TRAIANO
HADRIAN AVG
PONTIF MAX TRIB
POTEST III COS III
N RHODANI CI
INDVLGENTISSIMO
PRINCIPI

"To the Emperor Cæsar, son of the divine Trajanus Parthicus, grand-son to the divine Nerva Trajan, Hadrian Augustus, sovereign Pontif, in the third year of his tribunitial power, consul for the third time; the mariners of the Rhone, to their very indulgent Prince."

This inscription has been defaced by the children and people who pass that way. It ought to be removed to Tournon, or to the museum of l'Ardèche.

We returned to Tain, and although the good abbé seemed to take pleasure in our conversation, and was sensible how much we enjoyed his society, yet we could not prevail on him to sup with us, because ecclesiastics are forbidden to drink in a

tavern. In vain we represented to him, that an inn was the house of a traveller, and that it could not be considered as a tavern, when we only ate there at meal times. Our persuasions were in vain, and we parted with regret: we were really chagrined that this scruple had deprived us of his company, for the short time we had to stay at Tain; but we could not help acknowledging that the man, who so rigorously observed the duties of his station, deserved much esteem, while he who always found a pretence to dispense with them, merited only contempt for his weakness.

Marmontel, in his Memoirs, complains of the inn keeper at Tain, who made him pay very dear for very bad wine, which he called Hermitage, and which is the produce of a mountain near the town.

M. Fischer relates a similar fact. There must have been in this inn a succession of bad landlords, for they gave us an abominable supper of stale fish, although we were on the banks of the Rhone: we were assured it was excellent, and we payed as if it had been really of the best.

It was scarcely four o'clock when we left Tain, and were in our boat on the Rhone: our watermen had just caught a fine barbel.

The Rhone produces plenty of excellent fish: the shad follows the boats laden with salt up the stream; very fine eels of an extraordinary size are caught there, and pike of a superior flavour to those which breed in still waters; the barbel and the small carp are famous: the Rhone also contains the lamprey, and sturgeons are sometimes caught there.

During our course we had before us the *Mont-Ventoux*, which we never lost sight of afterwards: it is easily distinguished at a distance by the two points which forms the summit. We next perceived on the left the *Roche de Glun*, a chateau built on a rock washed by the stream; it has a very picturesque appearance.

Farther on, in front of a small island, we crossed the mouth of the Isère: the name of this river, called *Isara* by the Romans, has received but little alteration from time. It takes its source from mount *Iseran*, and receives the *Drac* below Grenoble: it is navigable from Montméliant; its course is rapid, though it is winding. Its inundations are terrible, and often detain for several days those travellers who are obliged to cross it. We now left the territory of the ancient Allobroges, and entered that of the *Segalauni*, now the department of the *Drôme*. On the right of the territory of the ancient *Helvii (the Vivarais,)*

which is only separated from that of the *Arverni* (Auvergne) by the mountains of *Cévennes*.

The sides of these mountains are cultivated with vines. The plain which is between these and the Rhone appears fertile, if we may judge by the number of mulberry trees with which it is covered, but there is no corn; and among so many trees, there is no fruit but the mulberry. Valence is at the extremity of this plain.

At seven o'clock we landed at Valence, and went to the inn kept by M. Martin: his house was filled by a company of comedians, but as they were preparing to depart, we amused ourselves with walking for an hour, till we could be accommodated comfortably. This inn is the best on the road; the apartments are very convenient, and table excellent. *Valèntia*, now called Valence, which was the principal place of the Valentinois, is now that of the department of the Drome. It was the capital of the *Segalauni;* Ptolemy gave it the title of a colony.

Valence, which under Honorius made part of the ancient Viennoise, was afterwards taken by the Burgundians, retaken by the sons of Clovis, and included in the boundaries of the new kingdom of *Arles*, under Charles-the-Bald. As the owners left to the Counts of Provence the power of extending their territory, provided their own sovereignty was acknowledged, they made themselves masters of the country, which is to the south of the Isere as far the Mediterranean. Provence having been divided into a county and a marquisat, the second lot, which comprized all that is between the Isere and the Durance, became the share of the counts of Thoulouse. This county passed by marriage to the Counts of Poitiers: Louis the Second left it, by will, to King Charles the Sixth, and it was annexed to the crown in 1419. In 1499, Louis the Twelfth, to facilitate his schemes and designs on Italy, gave this county to Cesar Borgia, natural son of Pope Alexander the Sixth, making it a dukedom. After the death of this monster, the Valentinois returned again to the crown.

This dukedom, which had been a political bonus, became a gift of love: in 1548, Henry the Second bestowed it on Diana de Poitiers, his mistress. At length Louis XIII, gave it up to *Honorius de Grimaldi*, prince of Monaco, in compensation for possessions which the prince had ceded to him in the kingdom of Naples: it remained in this family till the time of the revolution.

Valence is nearly as large as Vienne: the streets are narrow and crooked. It is situated on the declivity of a little

hill, and surrounded by vallies, which are watered and fertilized by a number of springs. In the cloister belonging to the monastery of the Dominicans is a spring, which is hot in winter, and cold in summer. They have in this city a considerable trade in woollen cloth and skins.

Valence was the native place of the unfortunate M. de Sucy, regulating commissary of the army of Egypt, who on his return from the expedition, was so inhumanly massacred at Augusta, in Sicily. I had had occasion to meet him at Paris, where he often came to see the cabinet of medals: he had from early youth shewn a taste for the monuments of antiquity, and had always sought to collect them both in his own country and in his travels. He brought from Egypt some subjects, the choice of which proved both his taste and erudition. We much wished to see the collection, which this interesting young man made before his departure. It had been divided between his two sisters, who presented each their part, as the precious relics of a brother, whose memory they tenderly cherished.

Madame de Chieze was not at home, but M. de Chieze obligingly shewed us some of the curiosities: the principal is a small antique statue of marble. In the garden of this house, M. de Sucy had placed several monuments, which still remain. Among others is a fragment of an inscription, which I copied; it is as follows:

MORIA. A
NAELFIRMEI
AXSIMI M FIR
VALERIANV
TRIINCOM
ABILI

This is, probably, "Memoriæ eternæ Lucii Firmiani Maxsimi Marcus Firmianas Valerianus fratri incomparabili."

In a corner of this small museum, among cypress trees, is a beautiful capital of marble: it is of the ionic order, and was brought from the city of Vienne; the volute is formed by the folds of two enormous dragons, which twine around two tripods, one of which is surmounted with a figure of Apollo, towards whom the heads of the two serpents are turned. It may be presumed, that this capital belonged to a temple dedicated to the God of the Arts. M. de Sucy had much trouble in removing it hither. It was on a boat that he entrusted to the Rhone his valuable acquisition: but the master observing the figures, with which it is ornamented, and it came in his head that it was a coat of arms, and he would have thrown into the river these sup-

posed symbols of aristocracy—it was with much difficulty that M. de Sucy dissuaded him from his purpose.

Near this capital there is another, smaller, but elegantly formed; there is also an altar to the Mother of the Gods: this is the fourth taurobolic which is to be seen on the road from Lyon.

We next went to the house of Madame de Bressac, the other sister of the late M. de Sucy, who possesses the remainder of the collection of antique monuments of that amiable amateur. It consists of several Greek vases: one of them is curious, because the painting on one of the sides is not finished: the figures are black on a red ground. There are also some small figures in bronze, one of which represents Silenus, and a bust of a woman in Roman pottery. Above all these is a valuable goleen fibula, or buckle: it is very large, the workmanship very fine, and it is in the highest preservation. It was found in the Isère by fishermen, who drew it up in their nets, with an uncut amethyst, on which is engraven a winged caduceus, crossed with an ear of wheat, the symbol of commerce and abundance.

Leaving the collection of M. de Sucy, we went to the cathedral which bears the name of *St. Apollinaire*: there is nothing extraordinary in this building: there is a chapel on the right hand, the walls of which are clumsily daubed with black, and covered with death's heads, and crossed bones. A tiara and keys were painted on the altar; in the middle there burned a lamp, which was ornamented with a tuft of black and white paper curled; a square grave stone, covered with velvet, bore the ensignia of the papacy. It was in this pitiful oratory, that the remains of the unfortunate Pius the Sixth were deposited; who, although distinguished for the mildness of his character, his humanity and benevolence, was hurled from the pontifical throne, and dragged from city to city as far as Valence, where he at last ended his earthly career.

On the west side of the church of *St. Apollinaire*, there is a small square building; the four sides of which are vermiculated and embellished with small figures; this was the mausoleum of the family of Marcieu. At each of the corners is a fine column of the Corinthian order: the key-stone, which is in the middle of the arch of each of the four windows, and of the four doors, is ornamented with a head or coat of arms. This small edifice is beautiful, and deserves to be engraven. In the revolution this building was alienated, and at present the vault serves as a cellar to a dealer in coffee, who became the possessor.

The ancient episcopal palace is the most beautiful building

of the city; it is now the residence of the prefect. There is from the gallery a fine view of the country, and of the Rhone.

Near Valence is a chateau with a park which is called "*le Valentin*;" it belonged to the Dukes of Valentinois, in the times when the country was subject to them. On the other side of the Rhone, opposite to Valence, is the tower and celebrated hill of St. Peray, which produces the wine called wine of St. Peray.

CHAP. XXII.

SAINT PERAY — CHATEAUNEUF — MONT CHAVATE — LIVRON—BRIDGE OF MARBLE—THE DROME—LAURIOT MONTELIMART—BRAVERY OF MARGUERITE DE LAGE —ANECDOTE OF AN INGENIOUS CHILD—ANCONA—ROCHEMAURE---VIVIERS.

WE took our departure from Valence at half past four o'clock; we passed in front of the prison, having on the right Saint-Peray, and Chateauneuf. This habitation is built on a rock, and has a very picturesque appearance. Before us we saw the Mont-Chavate, which presents itself at every turn of the Rhone, and which at a distance appears like one of the pyramids of Egypt. We left on the right the chateau, and the little town of la Voute; here the Rhone makes a winding, where the stream is very rapid. At half past six we were at the mouth of the Drome. To the right is the small town of Livron, which is built on a hill.

The Drome, which gives its name to the department, takes its source in the Alps of Dauphiny; it very often overflows, and leaves on the shore a large quantity of sand mixed with a chalky substance.

Formerly travellers who journeyed from Lyon to Marseille, were often obliged to stay two or three days before they could cross the rivers: a marble bridge of three arches has since been built. The Drome is not navigable.

From Livron to Lauriot, are many streams, which are fordable, but there are many bridges; we saw afar off this last mentioned town, which has a bad appearance; it is nevertheless very considerable.

It was nine o'clock when we arrived at Ancona: we wished to visit Die; and we had been assured that we could go more

conveniently from Montelimart than from Ancona: as it was delightful weather, and the moon shone-bright, we set off on foot, and reached Montelimart at ten o'clock, where we rested at the *hotel des Princes.* Montelimart owes its name to Monteil, who had the government of it. The Latin name was Montelium Adhemari, of which comes the name Montelimart.

Early in the morning we visited the town, which we went over presently, although it is rather considerable; it is well built, and is situated partly at the foot and partly on the declivity of a hill. Beneath the walls, the Roubion and the Jabron unite, and from thence flow on until they mingle their tranquil streams with the majestic Rhone; the shores are enlivened by cheerful landscapes, and the more distant prospect presents the most diversified scenery; we see little hills covered with vines, and mulberry, and olive trees; in another view, plains filled with orange and other fruit trees; in one spot the yellow harvest, in another the verdant meadow. The climate is here so mild that the orange trees grow in the open ground in the gardens.

Montélimart was the first city of France, where the reformed religion was established: there are still a great many Protestants, even among the most distinguished families.

The women have particularly testified their zeal for their peculiar faith. There is still to be seen a mutilated statue of Margot de Lay (Marguerite de Lage,) who defended the ramparts at the breach, killed with her own hand the count Ludovic, who was one of the principal besiegers, and led the victors back into the city, leaving an arm on the spot where she acquired so much glory.

They drink at Montélimart a white wine called claret de Die; it has rather an acid taste, and it sparkles in the glass like Champaine. The fields are productive, but the silk-worm and the mulberry tree are the chief objects of the industry of the inhabitants, and there are many silk manufactories.

This town has produced some men of letters. Francis Bauy, the civilian, was born here; a man much respected in his time, of whom they relate the following singular anecdote: he was busied one day in his study, when a child came in for some fire; he had neither shovel nor tongs, nor any thing to carry it in: Bauy observed the boy spread on his hand a layer of cold ashes, and afterwards place on it the live coals. It is related that, astonished at so ingenious an expedient, this scholar declared he was tempted to burn his books: probably he had no such design, but he strongly expressed his surprize at the contrivance, which, though so simple, probably would not have occurred to the most philosophical mind.

We met our boat again at Ancona, where the Rhone make an elbow, and the shore presents the form of a perfect amphitheatre. It might be supposed that the name Ancona was derived from a Greek word, which signifies elbow; but it is a corruption of the word, *Acunum*. It was half past five when we embarked, the wind was fair, and we hoped to be in good time at the bridge of Saint Esprit, and to go from thence to Orange.

In doubling the point of Ancona, we had a full view of the three great rocks of lava, which are on the right side of the Rhone. A quarter of a league from Rochemaure, we landed to take a nearer view of them. These three beautiful basaltic heaps are in a line, and almost touch one another, but entirely separated, and detached from the chalky mountain, to which they appear to lie close. We approached them by a road which leads to a very pleasant hamlet called les Fontaines, at the foot of a mountain covered with vineyards and olive trees, that are always green, and which receive the first rays of the rising sun. Plantations, meadows, and gardens, enliven this delightful picture; the landscape is farther enriched by an extensive perspective, which presents first the largest river in the south of France, and next the town of Montélimart, with little hills covered with vines and fruit-trees of every kind, some villages of Provence, and at the distance, the extensive chain of the Alps.

The largest of the three basaltic heaps is pointed, and is three hundred feet in height; the others not so high—they are only accessible on one side: all three are a very hard black basaltes, sometimes forming irregular masses, joined, and adhering together, and sometimes imperfect columns. These heaps have no connection with the currents of lava; which occasions it be supposed, that they were forced and raised suddenly out of the earth by the efforts of two large *craters*; namely, those of Rochemaure and Chenavari.

We soon perceived Rochemaure, the ruins of which are very picturesque; they appear suspended on a pile of basaltes, which bends towards the horizon. This castle belonged formerly to the prince of Soubise.

The burgh and little town of Rochemaure, are but about five or six hundred paces from the three rocks of lava before described: a part of the town is situated at the foot of the mountain, while the other on the heights, is built in the form of an amphitheatre.

Several houses, which surround the castle, have their foundations on the lava. The little colonnades of basalt form in a very singular manner the stairs and steps at the doors of some of

these houses, the backs of other houses are set against the sloping masses of lava, the windows and doors are framed in large regular prisms of basalt, the flat pieces of lava are used to make a kind of eaves to the houses; in short, this town among the broken ruins of a Volcano, presents to the eye a very interesting picture.

The castle is but thirty paces higher. It must have been immense; it is fortified by steep masses of basalt, and very high walls of considerable thickness. The entrance is through extensive court yards, but all is ruin and desolation; in one place are the remains of an armory, in another of a chapel. We see here cisterns, wells, dungeons, and a sort of cave where money was struck—there we observe furnished halls, and spacious chambers. All is grand, all is vast but all bear the marks of the ravages of time. The tower is built on the inaccessible summit of a basaltic heap; near it is a crater, in which travellers may descend to a depth of nearly four hundred feet.

From the castle may be distinguished the Volcano of Chenavari, but we could not go out of our way to see it.

On the very edge of the river, at the foot of the mountain is the village Theil.

We now continued our voyage, but the wind began to blow hard, and carried us with rapidity against a boat laden with merchandize; our watermen, however, had time to prevent the shock, but the terror expressed by the paleness of their faces informed us sufficiently that they were apprehensive of danger.

We were soon in sight of a handsome chateau situated on the bank of the river. At half past seven o'clock we were near the small town of Viviers, where we landed.

Formerly the current of the Rhone passed close to the walls of the town; it is now a gun shot distant. There is an island formed between the shore of Viviers and the principal current. The little canal between this island and Viviers is not always navigable. The ancient bed of the Rhone over which we passed is covered with flints.

The walls of the gardens are chiefly constructed with basalt, the streets of Viviers are narrow, and for the most part unpaved, the walls of the houses have a blackish cast, owing to the fragments of basalt with which they are built, which adds to the sombre appearance of these habitations. The bishop's palace, and the seminary, which are out of the town, are the only remarkable edifices: the first is devoted to the senate and the other to the legion of honour. The interior of Viviers is gloomy, but the environs are cheerful. At every turn we meet with

some object which reminds us that the Romans formerly were the inhabitants of this country. The naturalist, the antiquary, and the philosopher, may here occupy their leisure hours, while walking, hunting, and fishing, present other pleasures to those for whom study has no charms.

In the ruins of [illegible] (Alps) the following inscription is seen, which has never before been published.

L. PINARO
OLYMPO
CVLTORI LAR. M
SEX. ANTONI
MANSVETI ET
L. VALER. RVFINI

Each family had their *Lares* or household gods; they were kept in a kind of small chapel, which was called *Lararium*. These images [illegible] very [illegible], and [illegible] were employed [illegible], and to deck them with flowers at the festivals, [illegible] the Lapi[illegible] and the [illegible] was [illegible] to them. The [illegible] to whom this [illegible] was called "*cultor larum*." In the above inscription Pinarius Olympius is the cultor of the Lares of Sextus Antonius Mansuetus and Lucius Valerius Rufinus, who were, doubtless, persons of some consideration. It is the only instance, which I recollect, of a monument bearing the name of the cultor of the lares of particular individuals.

The little town, Viviers, was the capital of the *Helvii*, the country so celebrated for its volcanoes [illegible]. The last person who possessed [illegible] is now [illegible] Paris in a public library. [illegible] inscribed in the national [illegible] one day when [illegible] duty they came to the [illegible] to give the [illegible] who was to take his place. Such [illegible].

The name *Vivarais* is very ancient; it is found in monuments of the sixth century, as the word *Vivarium* [illegible] Frenchified. [illegible] Alba [illegible] was destroyed by the Vandals, in the [illegible] century, Viviers became the capital of the country, which took the name of Vivarais. This country, [illegible] the Romans, presents [illegible] mountains, but [illegible] cultivated some little rivers [illegible] formed [illegible] in a hollow between the moun[illegible]

tains; at the mouth of which there is generally a village or a small town. It is thus that Viviers and Bourg-Saint-Andéol are situated.

CHAP. XXIII.

BOURG SAINT-ANDEOL—MONUMENT OF THE GOD, MITHRAS—FOUNTAIN OF TURNES—TOMB OF ST. ANDEOL—PONT DU SAINT ESPRIT—ST. BENEZET—TOWN OF ST. ESPRIT.

AT half past eight we left Viviers: at ten the boat passed a part of the river which is always very rough, occasioned by some rocks that are under the water, and make the passage very dangerous; however we landed in safety, about a quarter of an hour afterwards, at Bourg-Saint-Andéol. We had a great desire to see the monument dedicated to the god Mithras; we therefore crossed the town and came to a kind of esplanade, enclosed by a range of rocks, from whence issues a copious spring, called *le Grand-Goul*; it forms an oval bason: near it is another, the water of which is received in one of a circular form, which is said to have no bottom. On the rock behind this, is the monument. It is a square bas relief four feet in height and six in breadth; it is cut and sculptured in the rock itself, which is of a chalky substance; in the middle is represented a young man clothed with a *chlamydis*, or cloak, and on his head a Phrygian cap; he is sacrificing a bull; a scorpion is stinging its testicles, and a dog attacks and holds it by the neck, while a serpent crawls above, and seems also to threaten the poor animal: at the top, on the left, is the figure of the radiant sun, on the right, the moon in the increase, and in the distance are seen some rocks; at the bottom is a tablet of this form [tablet outline] on which is an inscription, but it is almost obliterated.

According to a note which I found in the library of Nimes, among the papers of M. Séguier, it appears that this inscription was formerly in better preservation, and that it was as follows:

DS INVI MITHRAE MAX
MANNI F VIS MON ET
T MIRSIVS MEM D. S. PP.

The letters which are wanting may be thus supplied,

Deo Soli INVSIcto MITHRAE MAXsumus
MANNI Filius VISu MONitus ET
T MVRSIUS MEMmus De Suo Posuerunt.

To the god Sun, Invincible Mithras, Maximus son of Mannus, commanded by a vision, and T. Mursius Meminus, have erected this monument at their own expence.

The inhabitants of the country believe that this monument represents a certain *Turnus*, who, according to tradition, killed an enormous serpent near this fountain, which was called the fountain of Turnus, and by corruption, of Tourne: but it is easy to see that this monument relates to the worship of Mithras.

We will not enlarge on the subject, which is but little known, although it has furnished matter for many dissertations: it is sufficient to say, that under the name of Mithras they adore the sun. This worship was brought to Rome by the soldiers of Pompey, during the first wars of the Romans in Asia; thus these monuments became numerous. Maximus and Meminus were initiated in the mysteries of this god, who had appeared to them in a dream; and, according to the orders they had received, they erected this monument, which appears to be of the third or fourth century.

This curious bas relief is exposed to every injury of time, and the sports of children, who make it a mark in their amusements, and are perpetually throwing stones at it. It certainly ought to be covered with a shutter, which should only be opened when strangers or others desire to see it, who would willingly pay a small remuneration to the person who might have the care of it.

Not far from this, in the valley, are immense rocks which have several openings or cavities. We had a little guide and some of his play-mates, who told us of many large excavations which were to be found in the interior, and which they called churches in the rock. They assured us that they had been there and seen them; and, to convince us, immediately crawled on their bellies, and went in at one of these openings, and, after staying some time in the interior, they came out by another.

In the eleventh century this place was called Borgagiates, from which comes the word Bourg. St. Andeol, the martyr, is said to have suffered there in the early ages of christianity, under Septimus Severus. The precious relics of this saint are yet preserved in the principal church; they were found, it is said, in the

reign of the Emperor Lotharius, in the middle of the tenth century. This church is named after the saint, and we were shewn the tomb where his remains had been deposited. This sarcophagus, which was formerly under the altar, is now in the body of the church. It has a covering formed as a roof: the front presents a tablet supported by two winged figures, placed horizontally, and which seem to be flying. Above the seat of each of these figures is a dove with the wings spread. On each side of the tablet there is a rabbit, and near the bottom a bow and quiver of arrows. The smaller sides of this sarcophagus are ornamented with wreaths of flowers.

These arms and figures are not at all suitable to the tomb of an holy martyr, and the following inscription sufficiently proves that this is the tomb of a heathen.

D. M.
TIB. IVLI. VALERIAN
Q. ANN. V. M. VII. D. VI.
IVLIVS. CRANTOR ET
TERENTA. VALERIA
FILIO DVLCISSIMO

It is therefore evident that this monument was made by Julius Crantor and Terentia Valeria, for Tib. Julius Valerianus, their son, who died, aged five years, seven months, and six days. The remains of St. Andéol could not have been deposited there after his martyrdom. However, it is possible that the relics of the saint, at a later period, might have been enclosed in this sarcophagus, which was then empty.

The environs of St. Andéol are pleasant, although the town is not much more handsome or lively than that of Viviers

We left Bourg St. Andéol at twelve o'clock, and at one we were at the bridge of Saint-Esprit. We landed here to see the town and to seek for a conveyance to Orange, while the boat took our carriage to Avignon. The town of Saint-Esprit was first called St. Saturnin-du-Port; it only took its new name after the building of the bridge, which occasioned its celebrity. It was begun in 1265. A bull of pope Nicholas the fifth, informs us, that it was built by a shepherd, who was so commanded by an angel. But it is evident that the holy father here made a mistake, and has applied to the bridge of St. Esprit what is related of the bridge at Avignon, which was built by a shepherd named St. Benezet. The truth is. that the inhabitants of Saint-Saturnin, alarmed at the frequent wrecks which happened in the passage of the river, built this bridge, which they called *Pont-*

du-Saint-Esprit, because they attributed this happy idea to divine inspiration. They collected contributions from every part, and gathered together materials. The prior of the monastery of St. Saturnin, Don Jean de Tyange, began then to oppose the undertaking, which he looked upon as an infringement, on the rights of his monastery, but he was at length convinced of the necessity and utility of the work, and laid the first stone himself.

This bridge is a very fine piece of architecture. It is one hundred and forty five toises in length, and seventeen in breadth; it has twenty six arches, nineteen large and seven small ones; the larger are eighteen toises wide; each pile [illegible] opening which is arched, and is of fine architecture. It [illegible] not [illegible]y to conjecture the use of these smaller arches, whether they are to diminish the weight of the stone-work, or to give a passage to the water, that it may not strike against the foundations of the bridge and destroy it, which I rather take to be the case, as their elevation is above the starlings of the piles: a judge of architecture would easily conceive that they would serve to give a passage to the water, which would be no longer retarded and impeded by the starlings, as when without the expedient.

The keeper of the bridge has his habitation in the second pile, on the side next the town. It is easy to conceive, how valuable this bridge must be in the estimation of the inhabitants of the town, and the neighbouring departments: if by any event it should be destroyed, it would cost an incalculable sum to rebuild it, that every care and precaution is taken for its prevention. Carriages of only a certain weight are suffered to pass over it, and the smallest damage is immediately repaired; thus it has no appearance that denotes its antiquity. It is extremely narrow, so that two carriages can hardly pass abreast; but it must be observed, that when it was rebuilt, coaches and other carriages of the kind were not known. Gentlemen and ladies rode on horses, and merchandises and other things were generally conveyed on the backs of mules. The town is neater and better built than either Viviers or St. Andéol. The citadel, which was built in 1622, yet remains in good condition.

We could not find any conveyance by land, and were therefore obliged to re-embark.

CHAP. XXIV.

TRICASTINI—CHATEAU DORIA—TERRITORY OF ORANGE—CAVARES—ANTIQUITIES—TRIUMPHAL ARCH—BAS RELIEFS—TROPHIES AND INSCRIPTIONS—CROSS-BOWMEN—THE PLAVADOIS THEATRE—COMMERCE—MIGNON—RAMPARTS—TOWN—ITS HISTORY.

AS we were obliged to continue our journey by water, we went again on board our boat, but it was no longer pleasant, for the weather was stormy, and the wind contrary, and it was with great difficulty that we made any way. In this voyage we had on our right, the province of Languedoc, and on the left Tricastin, so called from the ancient *Tricastini*, who inhabited the territory, and who were in subjection to the *Cavares*, a numerous and powerful people.

Those who go from Montelimart to Orange by land, do not pass the bridge of St. Esprit, but take in their way Pierrelatte, Donzère, and Saint Paul-Trois Chateaux, which is the chief town of Tricastin.

It was four o'clock when we landed, and took the road to Orange on foot, while our watermen conducted the boat as far as Chateau Doria, where they were to wait for us till next day.

We reached Orange at six o'clock: the distance was only a long league, but we travelled slowly, that we might see the country; the people were every where busied in gathering the leaves of the mulberry trees, to feed the silk worms. The fields where these trees grow have a singular appearance; some of the trees are stripped entirely bare, and under the rays of a scorching sun, present the aspect of winter in the middle of summer, while others invite the traveller to repose, under the shade of their verdant and luxuriant foliage.

An inhabitant of the northern departments, would here behold the face of the country, totally different from what he had been accustomed to see. The corn fields, vineyards, and numbers of mulberry trees diversify the enchanting prospect; here are also to be seen olive and pomegranate trees.

We lodged at the post-house, and could see from our win-

dows the celebrated triumphal arch, which we were so desirous to examine, and of which we went to take a cursory view. We afterwards passed the rest of the evening, in conversing how we should make our stay at Orange most agreeable and advantageous.

We were now on truly classic ground, and the farther we proceeded, the more numerous and interesting did we find those monuments of antiquity, which the Romans had left in this country. Orange is a corruption of the word *Arausio*, which was the name of this ancient city of the territory of the Cavares.

This city has been many times ravaged by the barbarians. The first known possession of Orange was the comte-Giraud d'Adhémar, who lived at the beginning of the eleventh century. The princess Tiburge, about the year 1110, caused this city to be very much improved. The principality passed in 1393 to the house of Châlons, and in 1530 to the house of Nassau. Prince Maurice fortified Orange, and put it in a respectable state of defence. William the third of Nassau, king of England, dying without children, this principality came to Frederic William, the king of Prussia, who ceded it to the crown of France, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Louis the fourteenth, by a decree of council of 1714, united Orange to Dauphiné.

Under the government of its princes, this city was in a flourishing state. It was involved in the religious wars, and became the theatre of scenes of slaughter, and acts of cruelty. Since it has been united to France, it has lost all its importance: instead of fifteen thousand inhabitants, which it formerly had, it has now scarcely four thousand. The town is small, and the streets are narrow, dark, dirty, and ill paved: there is not a house of a tolerable appearance. The inhabitants cover the streets almost entirely with coarse canvas, tied with strings to shade them from the heat of the day. This custom prevails in most of the towns in the south, he canvas composed of pieces not all of a colour and mostly dirty, has a disgusting effect, nevertheless it is a useful expedient to shelter the people from the rays of the scorching sun.

Were it not for the remarkable vestiges of antiquity, which are the ornaments of this place, and the cause of its celebrity, one would be desirous to leave as soon as we enter the town. Much has been said of the triumphal arch of Orange, but there is yet no exact representation of it. They are not agreed about the time in which it was built, or for what reason or purpose. The following is a description of it, in its present state.

This arch is in a plain about four hundred paces beyond the

city, in the great road from Lyon to Marseille; it may be seen for more than a mile, in coming from Montdragon. It is sixty feet high, and sixty in breadth, in the form of a parallelogram, pierced with three arches, that in the middle, designed for carriages to pass, is larger and higher than the others: on each side of the arches are fluted corinthian pillars; the middle ones, which form the sides of the grand arch, support a triangular pediment, above which is an attic, crowned with a beautiful cornice. The north front must be the principal, as it serves as an entrance to the city: it is this side, which is in the best state of preservation; though of four columns there now remain but three, and the base of the fourth. The bas-relief on the attic, represents a combat between foot and horse soldiers; but it is impossible to distinguish the place of action, or the subject of the battle. To the left of this bas-relief, are implements of sacrifice. The trophies, which are on the two sides of the pediment, are almost entirely composed of marine subjects, such as the prows of ships, anchors, oars, tridents, &c. Those above the smaller arches consist of defensive and offensive arms, but which have no relation to the sea; being large oval shields, swords, helmets, trumpets, darts, spears, and arrows, with standards and flags, on which are the figure of a wild boar.

On one of the bucklers in the trophy, on the left, is the word [isvijvs]; on another [BEVE]. On the trophy to the right, is to be seen very plainly, the word, [DODVACVS,] and on a fragment, the letters SRE.

The south front has been much injured by the wind, which blows from the sea. The stone has been corroded by time, and the bas-reliefs are very much defaced; but they seem to have been very similar to those on the north side. There are scarce any remains of the trophies on the left; but those on the right are in tolerable preservation. On some of the bucklers are the following names, [SACROVIR,] [MARIO,] [DACVNO,] [VDILLVS,] [AV OT]. We observed also, on several bucklers, the letters SRE. On this front, on the right of the large bas-relief, on the attic, is the bust of a woman. Of the four antique columns of this front, there remains only the two to the right of the spectator. The two small sides are towards the east and west. The eastern front is still ornamented with four Corinthian fluted columns. Above the frieze, in which is represented the combats of gladiators, is a pediment on the two sides of which are Nereids. Between the columns are three trophies, representing offensive and defensive arms, with standards bearing the figure of a wild boar. Under each of these trophies are two figures of captives, among whom is an old man; they have their hands

tied behind them. On the middle of the pediment, on this side, is the figure of the radiant sun, under an arch, ornamented with horns of plenty, of which there is but a faint representation. On the two bucklers of the middle trophy, are the traces of two names, which unfortunately are effaced.

On the west side there are only the remains of two of the middle columns, and of the designs of the trophies, &c. It is said that the word TEVTOBOCCHVS was on one of the bucklers; but we could not discover any traces of the name of this king of the Teutons.

The interior of the arches is decorated with designs of garlands [illegible]ses, in ornamental squares; and the borders of the arcades [illegible]h branches of the vine and grapes, with flowers and fruits: but these embellishments are not all by the same hand, for some of them are greatly superior in execution to the others.

On the eastern side, the upper part is entirely repaired, and there is this inscription.

DV REGNE
DE M. MVRE,
ROY.

EN
170[illegible]

It recalls to memory, that the Corps of Cross-bow-men of Orange, contributed in the year 1706, to the reparation of this triumphal arch. The sieur Mure was at that time King of the cross bow-men. The county of Provence, and the Dauphins had, in the thirteenth century, created or allowed in all the cities on their territory, a corps of these archers, intending by such institutions to form their subjects to war, and to make them dexterous in the use of arms. The cross-bow-men annually elected a chief on one of the Sundays after Easter; the bowman, who on the day appointed, killed a bird placed at a certain distance, was declared king. This bird was a real or artificial parrot, or what was more anciently called a pie; at that time they called the parrot pape gay, that is to say *père gai*, or *bavard*, (a chatterer). The king was likewise colonel of the Corps: he presided at the exercises, and led them to the procession of the Host, and on the eve of St. John, marched at the head to kindle the bonfire at the solemn ceremony. This king of the bow-

men also enjoyed certain privileges on the duties levied on merchandises, and he was exempted from finding lodging for any of the soldiers; he had the distinction of laced clothes, and a heap of feathers on his hat or cap. The marching of these cross-bow-men was called the *bravade*. The king of the *bravade*, or of the cross-bow-men, enjoyed his dignity only a year. There is yet in existence, a regulation given by Charles the first of Anjou, to the company of cross-bow-men of Aix. These companies continued in some cities till the revolution. That of Aix paraded of late years only on the eve of St. John: their chief was called the King of the Bravade, or of St. John. Until the sixteenth century, this company was armed with bows and pikes, and afterwards with muskets.

There was formerly a high tower on the triumphal arch, and the whole monument was called at that time the tower of the arch: this arch was once enclosed in an edifice, which contained several rooms. This wretched piece of architecture was demolished in 1721, by the orders of a prince of Conti, who was at that time proprietor of the principality of Orange.

The above building has since been repaired at different times. A mason of Orange rebuilt one of the columns, which support the pediment on the south side. This clumsy column is without any ornament; but far from blaming the mason, I think he rather deserved commendation for making only a simple prop, instead of pretending to imitate the Roman architecture.

This celebrated monument has been the subject of many discussions of the learned, who have endeavoured to discover the name of the person, in honour of whom it was erected. The most ancient conjecture is, that it was erected to Cæsar the conqueror of Marseilles; nevertheless, this is not the prevailing opinion at present. In the sixteenth century, it was thought that this arch was dedicated to Marius, and Q. Lutatius Catullus, who in the year of Rome, 652, had defeated the Cimbri, and Teutons. The opinion, that it was dedicated to Marius, is the most general, though it is not very well supported; and there are many other conjectures on the subject, which are equally plausible.

A painful recollection embittered the pleasure which we had in examining this beautiful piece of ancient architecture; the place where it stands has been the theatre of many horrible scenes; it was here, that the blood of the French flowed under the axe of the executioner; it was here, that in the year 1793, many unfortunate people were brought from the prisons of the neighbouring towns to suffer death. The arch of Orange was certainly erected to preserve the recollection of battles, which cost the

lives of thousands, but they were mowed down with the scythe of war; they died fighting for their country, and their memory excites sentiments which soften those of regret: the inhabitants of Avignon on the contrary were dragged under the same triumphal arch to be massacred without pity, and without the means or power to defend themselves against their murderers.

The most remarkable monument of this city, next to the triumphal arch, is that which is improperly called the Circus. It is on the declivity of a mountain. This pretended Circus is in reality a theatre; and it is so much the more precious, as it is the only one of this kind in France, and the most perfect of those which have been preserved; the circular part, in which were the seats for the spectators, remains cut in the mountain: the two extremities of the semi-circle were joined by the stage. The wall, which intersects this semi-circle, and which formed the extremity of the stage, still remains entire and has a fine effect. This wall, which is an hundred and eight feet high, and three hundred in length, is built with beautiful square stones, of an equal size, and joined with the greatest exactness, and is ornamented with two ranges of arcades, and an attic.

It is impossible to view this wall, grand, simple, so well built, and so well preserved, without admiration. In the middle is a large door, which must have been the entrance for the actors and others in the service of the theatre.

At the top of the exterior front, there are two ranges of stones, which jut out from the wall; they are a considerable distance one from the other; those of the first range have a hole pierced vertically through them, which must have been for the purpose of receiving a mast, to the extremities of which were fastened the canvas or sail-cloth, that covered the theatre, and sheltered the spectators from the weather, and the heat of the sun.

About forty years ago, a locksmith, whose name was Noguier, and who had a shop in the front of the theatre, took it in his head in a drunken fit, to get upon this wall and divert the attention of the spectators from the tricks of certain rope dancers, who were exhibiting on the spot. He leaped with the greatest agility, from one stone to another; and coming to a place where one was wanting, he climbed to the cornice, reached the other stone, and so in safety to the end. The terror occasioned by this dangerous prank, completely enwrapt the attention of the spectators in the most profound silence. The son of this man, who is also a locksmith, still lives on the spot. At the two sides of the wall are rooms, which were doubtlessly designed to lodge the people of the theatre, and to keep the decorations:

this place has been for a long time the prison of the city. The rain water, which collects in different places, is conveyed through channels, till it runs along the front of the building, which it undermines; and the filth thrown out by the prisoners, adds to the disgusting scene.

But in spite of the indifference, and I may say the injustice of mankind, this fine edifice will for some centuries endure the outrages of ignorance, and of the seasons; there must be many efforts to destroy the wall, which is twelve feet thick, and constructed with stones of an enormous size, joined without any cement, some of which are fifteen feet in length, and of a proportionable thickness. The lower part of this wall is composed of arcades, under which are several shops.

It is mortifying to see a part of this beautiful theatre turned into a prison; it is still more so to notice the disgusting heaps of rubbish accumulated in the place, which was formerly the front of the stage, and the scene where the comedies of Plautus and Terence, and the tragedies of Seneca, were represented.

It is astonishing that the wall alone should have been preserved, and that the interior of the theatre, which was hollowed in the rock itself, should have been destroyed. Probably this theatre has in times of the civil disturbances, been a place of retreat for the inhabitants who made use of the materials for defence.

On the summit of this mountain, are the ruins of an ancient castle, which appears to have been strongly built with large stones. From this spot is a most delightful prospect of great extent.

There are at Orange the ruins of some other edifices, an amphitheatre, baths, and an aqueduct, of which there remains only some arcades, enclosed in the walls of the houses. Orange contains so many monuments of antiquity, that they may be found in almost every part of the city.

The trade of this place was considerable in the days of the sovereigns: at present the streets are empty of merchandise, and there is no appearance of industry. They collect in the neighbourhood large quantities of silk of very good quality, and have an abundant harvest of saffron, figs and oil; these are the sources of the riches of the country and the concourse of travellers, who pass through in their way to Marseilles or Lyon, is the main spring which keeps the city in motion. The inhabitants would detain travellers a much longer time among them, if they would attach more importance to their monuments, and take better care of them.

As there was nothing more to engage our attention at Orange, instead of going to Chateau-Doria to take to our boat, we hired our landlord's tilted cart, and sent the servant on foot to give orders to the boatmen to convey our carriage, and give us the meeting at Avignon.

The cart, in which we sat on a cushion, was drawn by a strong mule, which went continually on a trot, and jolted us so that we had scarce time to breathe. The ground we passed over is almost covered with stones; the inhabitants collect them together in heaps, to disencumber the soil. We here and there saw mulberry and olive trees, and the French oak or holly. They also grow great quantities of lavender.

As we approach Courtizon, the soil becomes more fruitful. This small town is situated on a river called l'Aseille, near which place the territories of the Pope formerly commenced. We continued our way to Cazalet; we crossed the *Sorgue*, and then ascended a rising ground, which reached as far as Avignon. The land here is tolerably well cultivated; we observed some vineyards and corn fields. From this road, we discover to the east and south east, a great part of the ci-devant Comtat Venaissin.

We arrived at Avignon about five o'clock, and the boat which conveyed our carriage was not long after us. Above a hundred men *en carmagnole*, with girdles of red serge, seized our chaise and drew it rapidly to the inn. We were at a loss to know how we should satisfy this troop; but we were informed that they had the exclusive privilege of removing the carriages on board, or to the shore, and that they are permitted to take eighteen francs each, for their job, however numerous they might be. We passed the evening in walking on the banks of the Rhone, at the foot of those little ramparts, which are so remarkably handsome; the walls are built with small smooth stones, joined with the greatest exactness; the battlements on the top are very regular, and the whole is flanked with square towers, placed at equal distances. Time has given to these walls a brownish tinge, which adds to the effect of the tout-ensemble. No other town of the middle age, has so beautiful an enclosure; but these ramparts would be but a weak defence in the time of danger. One may say of these walls, so beautiful and so regular,

"Qu'ils servent de parade, et non pas de defence."

Nevertheless they were built by Pope Innocent the sixth in 1358, to protect Avignon from the attacks of the banditti who laid the towns under contribution. But the manner of making war in those days was very different from that of our time.

Above the walls are seen the steeples of the many religious edifices, which this town formerly contained; most of them, at present are used for other purposes. These beautiful walls have seven gates: the principal one was built under the pontificate of Pius the Sixth. The stile of architecture is handsome enough, but the attic is too heavy and too high for the size of the gateway.

The interior of the town does not answer the beauty of the ramparts and environs; most of the streets being narrow and crooked. There are however, several handsome houses built in the Italian taste; among others *l'hotel de Crillon*, and *l'hotel de Cambis*. The streets are generally covered with awnings of canvas in the summer: a custom which prevails in all the towns of Provence.

The bell summoned us to the *table d'hôte*: never was there seen so mixed a society, composed of travellers of every description, and people who lived in the town. The overseer of the coaches, the colonel commandant, and some officers, two female comedians, Blanchard and his wife, who were preparing to visit the clouds, an old ecclesiastic, and several others: it was really a scene in a comic romance. After dinner we returned to our chamber, which was handsome and neat enough; but the walls were covered with dire imprecations of travellers against the hard beds, the bugs, the dirty sheets, and the other inconveniences of the inns of the small towns of Languedoc and Provence.

The next day we went to see what yet remained worthy of notice in the town, and we every where found the vestiges of revolutionary rage.

Pliny only informs us that *Avenio* was a Latin town; but Ptolemy, who corrected several of the errors of Pliny, relative to the cities of Narbonese Gaul makes it a colony. It was situated on the banks of the Rhone, between the *Sorgue* and the *Durance*.

The Franks and the Saracens took possession of it successively: in 1206 it formed a republic, under the government of a kind of elective magistrate; and at length became subject to the Counts of Provence The Countess Jane, Queen of Naples—(the guilty and unfortunate princess, whom love caused to commit a crime, which nevertheless has not obliterated the remembrance of her accomplishments, and the noble virtues which she practised during the rest of her life)—having been recalled to the throne of Naples, and wanting money for the journey, she sold Avignon, its suburbs and lands to Pope Clement the sixth for 80,000 florins of gold. The subtle pontiff gave his absolution into the bargain for the punishment she had incurred for the

murder of her first consort. It has been said, that the money was never paid: however, it was on this sale that the rights of the Pope were founded. These rights, which have been the subject of several curious discussions, it is not now worth while to examine. However, the kings of France willingly acknowledged them, until the time when Louis the Fourteenth seized the city, in 1662 and in 1688, to punish Alexander the Seventh, and Innocent the Eleventh, for their conduct towards his ambassadors. Louis the fifteenth followed this example in 1768, to avenge the injury which Clement the Thirteenth had done the Duke of Parma. But these acts of violence had always been followed by a prompt restitution. At length the re-union of Avignon to France was irrevocably proclaimed in 1790, by the constituent assembly.

The kings of France could easily have possessed themselves of this fine country; the thunder of the Vatican had long lost its effect, nor was there any power to prevent them; but the cabinet of Versailles found it more politic, to keep the popes in dependance, by menancing them on every slight occasion of discontent, with the loss of this desmesne, on which the holy see set so much value, although no revenue was derived from it. The money produced by the taxes imposed, was expended in the country, in repairing the public buildings and highways, and paying the troops, &c.

The cruel and terrible effects of the Revolution, are very visible in Avignon; the monasteries, the chapels and churches, built with more magnificence than taste in the fourteenth century, have been destroyed, with the monuments which they inclosed. We sought in vain for the tombs of the popes, and for that of Alain Chartier, surnamed the Father of Eloquence. The recollection of the tender Petrarch could not preserve the tomb of his beloved Laura; and the valour of the brave Crillon had not power to defend his mausoleum: these monuments raised to the memory of piety, beauty, and valour, are all destroyed! The paintings which were in the churches have been carried away. We went, however, to see the library; the care of it is confided to M. Calvet: as the rooms were not in order, and all the books in heaps, we could not examine them. We next viewed the collection of books and pictures, which were in the episcopal palace: but the first were piled up, and the last placed one on another, with the faces downwards.

The episcopal palace is built on a rock, which is so large, that besides this immense building, there are upon it a church, and the banking house; there are also many houses and two large squares. A part of the city on the south east is built on the

declivity of this rock. From the palace is seen a magnificent prospect over the river and the surrounding country.

The cathedral, Notre-Dame-des-Dons, still remains; but it is a Gothic edifice with a lofty tower: it is entirely stripped of the pictures and monuments with which it was ornamented, and the rich treasure of the sacristy has been pillaged.

We next visited the palace called the chateau, which had been, during seventy years, the residence of the popes, and since that, of the vice-legates. After many long and indecent disputes between the courts of France and Rome, and a vacancy of eleven months, Philippe-le-Bel succeeded in having a pope elected, who he thought would serve his interests. Bertrand de Gotta, who was made pope by the name of Clement the Fifth, removed the Apostolic seat to Avignon in 1309; and it was in his reign and those of his successors that luxury and corruption were introduced into Provence. Almost all the popes resided in this palace; it was here that Clement the Fifth collected together the riches, of which, in conjunction with Philippe-le-Bel, he had dispossessed the unfortunate Templers; and this treasure, amassed by sanguinary bulls and unjust measures, was plundered by his relatives and servants. The exactions of John the twenty-second were yet more considerable, for although he was deprived of the subsidies of his immediate subjects, he left a treasure of eight millions of gold florins, and seven millions in plate and jewels. It was here that Clement the sixth proclaimed the proscription of the emperor Louis de Bavière, absolved his people from their oath of allegiance, and signed the shameful bargain, which, for the sake of a trifling sum and a few indulgences, deprived an unfortunate queen of a part of her dominions. However this pontiff was not a miser; he amassed only to spend; for to the love of gold was added the love of women. Innocent the Sixth sacrificed every thing to the desire of increasing the influence of his family and of acquiring wealth. The virtuous Urban the Fifth also reigned in Avignon. At length, in 1378, Gregory the Eleventh removed the holy seat again to Rome.

The palace is surrounded with high walls, flanked with towers, and otherways fortified: it has a very picturesque appearance, but it is more like a fortress than the residence of the head of the church, and representative of the God of peace.

There are in Avignon many benevolent institutions, which are supported with zeal and activity, deserving of the greatest praise. The chief of these is the Grand General Hospital; it is a fine building, and would contain two hundred and fifty sick persons. There is also a charity-house for orphans, and another for mad-people, &c. &c.

There are also different societies to cultivate the arts and sciences.

The weather was very fine all the time we staid at Avignon; but the wind blows there sometimes with such violence that it is insupportable to those who are not accustomed to it. However it is necessary and wholesome, by drying up the humidity which would otherwise prevail in this country. The variations of the air are very sudden and singular: after a hot summer, when the thermometer is from 23 to 28 degrees, they have winters in which it descends 12 degrees below the freezing point. There is sometimes, in a few hours, the difference of 10 or 12 degrees in the temperature.

At Avignon there are a great number of coffee-houses, some of which resemble those at Paris.

Before the revolution the Jews inhabited a separate quarter of the town, which was enclosed; the gates of which were shut every evening at eight o'clock. Both men and women were obliged to wear a dress that distinguished them from others. At present the Jews are not particularly classed, and their women are distinguished only by their extreme beauty.

The necessaries of life are dear at Avignon, because every thing comes from the neighbouring departments. Besides the necessary provisions, many articles of commerce are also brought hither. But the balance of trade is now in favour of Avignon.

The industry of this city is also much exercised in the art of printing: during the papal government the presses of Avignon sent forth numerous counterfeit editions of every good work. This abuse has been restricted, but it is not prevented: for this kind of work is still pursued in secret; and it is in vain that the booksellers of Paris send agents from time to time to make discoveries.

The active industry of Avignon was formerly confined to the support of some silk manufactories and the exportation of some of the produce of the province: at present there are fifteen hundred rooms in which are manufactured those kinds of taffety called florentines, and demi-florence: there are also about twenty machines to divide and twist silk; twenty houses where the colours are dyed; brewhouses, forges, and workshops where madder, verdigrease, and aqua-fortis are manufactured.

It is impossible to speak of Avignon without calling to mind the miseries it has experienced, and the shocking scenes of which it has been the theatre, under the papal government: the Avignonnois, naturally idle, could not perish with hunger, though they might do little or nothing: but now obliged to exert them-

selves, they are become active and laborious, and the produce of their industry amply furnishes them with all the comforts and necessaries of life.

CHAP. XXVII.

ROAD TO AIX—BRIDGE—ST. ANDEOL—ORGON—CURIOUS EXCAVATED MOUNTAIN—LAMBESC—CLOCK—FETE' DIEU—ANTIQUITIES—INSCRIPTIONS— MADAME VINCEN'S HOUSE—AIX—HOT SPRINGS—BATHS, &c. &c.

WE left Avignon about ten o'clock the next day and took the road to Aix. The way from Avignon, as far as the plain which reaches the Durance, is bordered with poplars and willows; the fields are well cultivated with rye and wheat, and there are plenty of beautiful mulberry trees.

The rain causes the Durance to overflow from morning to night; and the passage, at that time, is impassable; even the post is obliged to wait till the waters retire. They are now building a bridge, which will remove all the inconvenience of these inundations.

The place where we pass the Durance is about a quarter of a league from Chartreuse-de-Bonpas, which monastery formerly belonged to the Templars. After crossing the river we enter the department of the Bouches-du-Rhone, and go along the bank to the left, where there is a canal, which has been made to give a free passage to the waters of the river at the time of the inundations, and to preserve the surrounding fields from their ravages.

The prospect extends to the north over a pleasant plain, near four leagues, terminated by the chalky rocks, out of which issues the spring of Vaucluse, so celebrated in the sonnets of the amorous Petrarch. From Noves, the place which gave birth to Laura, the road crosses a country tolerably well cultivated, which produces corn and wine; the sides are bordered with rivulets and shaded by willows, poplars, and fig-trees; the grounds resemble gardens; they use but little labour in the cultivation of the soil: they turn up the earth with a large spade, and harrow it with a heavy rake. There are no trees, except in a small park which belongs to an individual: the houses stand in

the middle of the fields without any shade. After passing Saint-Andeol, two miles from Orgon, the earth becomes sandy and unfruitful. To the south-east there is a chain of barren rocks which extends as far as the Durance: it is on these heights that the small town of Orgon is situated.

We made use of the time while some small repairs were done to our carriage, to see the canal which they had begun, and which, unfortunately, they have left unfinished, after expending considerable sums, though it would not cost a great deal more to complete it. Half a quarter of a league from Orgon is the Pierre-percée, or perforated rock: it is a mountain through which they have conducted the canal. This opening is twenty-five feet wide: the vault or arch is supported by hewn stones, and on the two sides are foot-paths for the men and animals which draw the boats. We continued our journey as soon as our chaise was in proper condition, and arrived at Lambesc, where the country has a delightful appearance; between the vine-yards and corn-fields are a number of olive trees: and this place produces abundantly that valuable oil which is called oil of Aix.

We walked to see the town; it is handsome, and in the principal street are many well-built houses: the church is in good preservation, and the two fountains are worthy of attention.

This town, in the time of the monarchy, was the chief place of a principality, which belonged to the house of Lorraine. The states of Provence here held their assemblies.

A quarry in the neighbourhood produces a red, yellow, and black marble, which is in great esteem.

It was customary formerly, in several towns, to make the clocks tell the hour by means of one or more statues, who strike the bell with hammers: a similar custom prevails in Italy; and it is the case in the little town of Lambesc; there is on the top of a tower a man who strikes the hours in this manner; at the same instant a woman appears, and makes him a low curtesy; she then walks once round him. The people of the country call these figures Giacomar, and Giacomarda.

The environs of Lambesc are extremely pleasant; the fields produce corn and wine, and are planted with a great number of olive trees. We here see some specimens of the singular manner of culture which is observed in a great part of Provence: each ground is divided into several beds or squares, of about twelve feet each way; these are planted alternately with vines or sown with corn, and the whole is surrounded with olive trees. The various colours of the vine, the corn, and the fruit of the olive tree, in the different degrees of maturity, give the country the appearance of a beautiful diversified carpet.

On leaving Lambesc there is a very disagreeable ascent, and immediately afterwards a descent, still more so, over rough pieces of rock, which our postillion could not avoid but by making zigzags and turnings.

It was dark when we arrived at the village Saint-Caunat; and, although it was but one post to Aix, we determined to stay where we were for the night; it was at a pitiful inn, kept by an old woman, a native of Stralsund, in Pomerania; she had married a French soldier, in 1756, with whom she came and settled four leagues from Aix, in a climate very different from that of her own country. She has placed over her door, by way of sign, "*A la Suédoise.*" This inn afforded us but little refreshment; but the entertainment was the best that could be had. We made our hostess relate her history; and she created some interest by her frankness and good-nature.

We observed flocks of sheep return to the village, among which are remarked several with a singular ornament; it consisted of one, two, and as far as twelve tufts of wool, which are not cut off in the shearing. The shepherds leave this mark on their favourite sheep.

At the break of day we again set off, and arrived at Aix at seven o'clock in the morning.

The games had begun at day-break, and at this hour every one seemed actively amused, and so continued till night. We saw, successively, pass under our windows, the divers groups which make part of the celebrated procession of the *Fête-Dieu*: each group was accompanied by two musicians; and the lively tambourine and jocund galoubet were every where to be heard. Two mendicants, carrying a box and a painted staff, were not the least essential personages of the group; they stopped before every house to dance, or perform some whimsical pantomimic tricks, and did not go far without making a collection.

The place called the Orbitelle, where we lodged, is beautiful; it is near one hundred and fifty toises in length, and above fifteen in width: it is planted with four rows of fine old linden trees; the houses are handsome, and there are several coffee-houses. This place reminds one of the boulevards at Paris and Bourdeaux. From the south side, the view is over the country, and the north view terminates at the front of the house of M. du Poët: in the centre are three spouting fountains; the water of the middle one is hot, which saves the inhabitants the trouble of heating water for domestic purposes. Besides this hot spring there is another which supplies the baths.

The rich and most distinguished inhabitants reside generally in this place; and the most elegant hotels, for the accommodation

of strangers are also to be found; the doors of the coffee-houses are surrounded by idlers; and in the evening almost every one comes to breathe the air under the beautiful trees of this pleasant promenade.

M. de Saint Vincens, a friend whom I much esteem, has a house here; at the time we arrived he was at the hospital, of which he is governor; but as soon as he could get away from the duties he had taken on himself for the benefit of his fellow creatures, he came to us: how great was the pleasure of seeing this dear friend!

The diversions of the Fête-Dieu were begun, and all the inhabitants were collected together in the court of la Trinité, which is the Longchamp of the city of Aix. The hire of the chairs is for the benefit of the hospital for lunatics, which is in this court. The avenues were filled with singers and dancers, and a crowd of spectators who were diverted with the sight of the devils, children, apostles, and the other groups, which I have already mentioned: the various diversions passed along the terraces of the gardens, which are on the sides of the court; that in which we were, belonged to the archbishop M. Champion de Cicé; this venerable prelate gave money to each group as they passed; and for once the devil received a tribute from piety itself.

The diversions of the day were ended with a foot race, for a plain pewter dish. Achilles proposed a silver urn as the prize on a similar occasion; but the competitors at Aix were not heroes, nor was he who gained the victory an Ulysses.

In one of the exterior courts of the hospital, there was hung out a chandelier with some wax lights; the sound of the tambourine was heard, and the dance began. The sets were formed by the ladies, and the young people of the town. We were witness to a singular custom, which prevails in the country places of Provence; it is presenting pins to the female dancers; the men buy these pins for more or less, as it suits them, and it is in this manner that the expences of the rural ball is defrayed. It is here a matter of benevolence, and every one is eager to give according to his ability.

On the next day we went to see the valuable collection of my respectable friend M. de Saint Vincens. The house itself inspired us with sentiments of veneration; every object denotes learning, benevolence, and virtue. The vestibule, the court, and the staircase are filled with Greek and Roman inscriptions, and those of the middle age; the spaces over the doors are ornamented with fragments of mosaic. His cabinet contains a numerous collection of books and manuscripts, medals, and divers

monuments of antiquity, or those which belong to the history of his country. M. de Saint-Vincens has described and published several of these monuments, but there are many others equally deserving the attention of the learned and curious.

The following inscription is on a pillar of red marble, on the top of which there must have been a head or bust; it relates to a vow made for the health of the Emperor Alexander Severus, and of his mother Julia Mammæa.

ΕΠ ΑΓΑΘΩ ΥΠΕΡ ΣΩΤΗΡΙΑΣ
ΜΑΡΚΟΥ ΑΥΡΗΛΙΟΥ
ΣΕΟΥΗΡΟΥ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΟΥ
ΕΥΤΥΧΟΥΣ ΕΥΣΕ ΒΟΥΕ ΣΕΒ
ΚΑΙ ΙΟΥΛΙΑΣ ΜΑΜΑΙΑΣ
ΣΕΒΑΣΤΗΣ ΜΗΤΡΟΣ ΣΕΒ.
ΔΙΙ ΗΛΙΩ
ΜΕΓΑΛΩ ΣΑΡΑΠΙΔΙ
ΚΑΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΣΥΝΝΑΟΙΣ
ΘΕΟΙΣ
Μ ΑΥΡΗΛΙΟΣ ΗΡΩΝ
ΝΕΩΚΟΡΟΣ ΤΟΥ ΕΝ
ΠΟΡΤΩ ΣΑΡΑΠΙΔΟΣ ΕΠΙ
ΛΑΡΓΙΝΙΩ ΒΕΙΤΑΛΙΩΝΙ
ΑΡΧΙΥΠΗΡΕΤΗ ΚΑΙ ΚΑ
ΜΕΙΝΕΥΤΗ ΚΑΙ ΑΥΡΗΛΙΩ
ΦΗΒΩ ΚΑΙ ΣΑΛΩΝΙΩ ΘΕΟ
ΔΟΤΩ ΙΕΡΩΦΩΝΟΙΣ
ΚΑΙ ΚΑΜΕΙΝΕΥΤΑΙΣ ΚΑΡΙ
ΤΗ ΙΕΡΟΔΟΥΛΕΙΑ ΑΝΕ
ΘΗΚΕΝ ΕΠ ΑΓΑΘΩ

"In memory of benefits received, this inscription was placed here for the health of Marcus Aurelius Severus Alexander; august, pious, and happy, and of Julia Mammæa Augusta, mother of Augustus, in honor of the God Sol, of the great Serapis, and of other divinities, worshipped in the same temple, by Marcus Aurelius Heron Edituus of the temple of Serapis near the port, when Largenius Vitalius was arch priest, and Camincuta, and Aurelius Phœbus, with Salenius Theoditus, sacred chanters, and Camincutes; and by Charite, priestess of the temple, who has joined in this inscription, in gratitude, also for benefits received."

The following inscription was found on the road to Toulon, about a mile from Aix, in the month of August, 1804. It is on a square stone, surmounted with a triangular pediment, on the

top of which is a shell in relief, cut in the stone. The letters are finely formed.

M. CAELIO FLORO
IIIIII VIR AVG
CAELIAE RESTITVTAE M....
VERECVNDO FRATRI
FLORA
CAELIVS CLEMENS PATRONVS

To Marcus Cœlius Florus, Sextumvir of Augustus; To Cœlia Restituta, mother of Florus; To Verecundus, his brother; To Flora his sister; Cœlius Clemens, their patron, has erected this monument.

Since our departure, there has been added to these monuments a small statue, which was found at Conit, in the territory of Roques, at the distance of three leagues from Aix. The head and the arms are wanting; it is in a sitting posture. This figure, which is of clumsy workmanship, has a medallion hanging to the neck: it appears to be of the third or fourth century.

M. de Saint-Vincens conducted us, the next day, to a handsome country house, near the gates of the city. It belongs to Madam de Saint-Vincens. It is a pleasant retreat, shaded by some fine old trees. We there passed a delightful day, in the midst of a select and agreeable society.

This house belonged to the president Mazauques, grand-uncle to Madame de Saint-Vincens. We played at bowls, the favourite exercise of the inhabitants of the south, under the trees which he had planted. His portrait ornaments the principal room.

It would have been singular to be in the city of Aix without enjoying the pleasure of the baths, to which it owes its celebrity. We went thither on the following day. These baths are very pleasant.

The profits are appropriated to the support of the hospital, to which they belong. It is not surprising that the Romans settled in this place.

Aix was successively taken and destroyed by the Bourguignons, the Visigoths, the Saracens, and the Normans. It began to acquire some importance, when it became the usual residence of the Counts.

It is impossible to enter into the city of Aix, without wishing to partake of the pleasure of its baths, to which the place owes its name. We, therefore, went to them the day after our arrival,

and found them extremely agreeable. The profits derived from them go to the support of the hospital, to which they belong. It is not astonishing that the salubrity of these waters induced the Romans to take up their residence here. The Salyes, a Ligurian nation, formerly occupied this country, and the plain on which Aix is situated, appears to have been their principal quarter.

CHAP. XXVIII.

CITY OF AIX—HOTEL OF M. D'ALBERTAS—ALABASTER URN—PICTURES OF M. SALLIER—RARE BOOKS—CECCO D'ASCOLI—FABLES OF YSOPET AND D'AMONET, &c.—CABINET OF M. MAGNAN.

AIX, though not large, is an extremely handsome city: most of the houses are built of a yellowish stone, while the fronts of some of them are covered with plaster of Paris of the same colour. Besides the court hotels, there are others extremely elegant in the adjacent streets; of these the most conspicuous is that of M. d'Albertas. This gentleman is the son of the first president of that name, a respectable magistrate, whose death was so tragical and unfortunate. M. d'Albertas devotes his whole time to the education of his two sons, very interesting and studious youths, who learn each day, by his example, how to render themselves illustrious by the practice of benevolence and other amiable virtues.

His hotel is magnificent; the great gallery of which contains several paintings, chiefly from the modern French school. He permitted me to delineate, in his cabinet, a superb antique urn of alabaster, which is extremely valuable, whether we consider its workmanship, its size, or its perfect state. He has also in his possession another, about one foot in diameter, upon which are engraven characters affirmed to be Phenician, but evidently very unskilfully counterfeited. This is likewise the case with an intaglio, in the possession of M. de Saizien, in which the characters, said to be Phenician, are equally fictitious.

We also visited the cabinet of M. Sallien, then mayor of Aix, by the citizens of which he is much respected, on account of his amiable and conciliating manners. He moreover possesses a magnificent shield, the inner surface of which is adorned with beautiful paintings, executed, in the opinion of the author, by

Jean d'Udine, one of Raphael's pupils. He has also a beautiful antique head, the nose of which, unfortunately having been broken off, has been supplied by some unskilful artist; some modern engraved stones; a collection of paintings, among which we observed the inside of a church, the production of an obscure Flemish painter; and a painting of Michael Angelo Caravage, of which there exists an engraving by Coelmans.

M. Pontier, librarian, had caused several rare books and manuscripts to be removed to the house of M. Henrici, printer, which he was anxious we should see, and which we employed several hours in examining. The most curious among this collection were Alde's edition of Dante, in 8vo. 1502. A manuscript of the bible in a very small size, written on leaves of oxgut, or, at least, on very thin fine vellum; and an edition of 1476, in 8vo. or very small 4to. of a work entitled, *Libro del clarissimo filosofo Ciecho Esculano dicto Lacerba*. This work is extremely scarce, according to the Abbe Denis; the only copy extant being in the imperial library at Vienna. At the head of the first page is written, *Incommentia il prima libro del clarissimo philosofo Ciccho Esculano dicto Lacerba*. The conclusion in the last leaf runs thus: *Finise il libro de Ciecho Esculano dicto Lacerba, Impresso nel alma patria de Venesia per maistro Philipo de Piero ne gli âni del* MCCCCLXXVI.

The real name of *Ciecho Esculano,* [Cecco d'Ascoli,) is Francesco di Stabili: Cecco is a diminutive of Francesco, so that Bayle was incorrect when he termed him Cicchus. This wonderful man was born at Ascoli in 1257; he cultivated poetry, theology, geometry, and physics. He spent some time under the care of pope John XXII. at Avignon, and only returned to Italy after having been several times prosecuted and pardoned, on an accusation of magic; he was at last burnt in 1327, at which period he had attained the age of seventy. His poem on physics is full of errors, but it affords a curious document to those who delight to trace the history of science. This copy is extremely scarce.

We also saw a manuscript on vellum, in 8vo. with vignettes, entitled, *Fables Dysopet et Damonet, moralisees en Latin et en Romans, a l'honneur de Jeane de Bourgoigne, royne de France, femme du roi Phelipes Lelong, qui regnoit l'an* 1316. Ysopet is Esop; and by Amonet is evidently intended *Avienus,* which ought to have been translated *Avienet* or *Avionet*; and it appears highly probable, that the mistake has originated from some ignorant copyist having united the three legs of the *vi* or *ni*, thus converting them into an *m*; thence introducing the name *Amonet.* There exists a manuscript of these fables in the

library of Francis I. but which has been so much injured by damp as to render the present copy a great acquisition. The prologue is entirely wanting. At the end of the fables are two other pieces, but of so trifling a nature as not to deserve particular notice.

From hence we proceeded to the house of M. Magnan de la Roquette, who possesses a valuable cabinet of pictures and engravings. We remarked, in particular, an antique Torse of Paros marble, found in 1760, in the vicinity of the triumphal arch of Saint-Remy, entwined by a vine: this Torse has been formed by the chisel, but left in an unfinished state, as there remains on each side a portion of the marble, projecting about an inch from the surface of the body.

M. Magnan's cabinet is also enriched by a collection of well engraved stones, in the number of which we noticed a beautiful scarab, and a small Cameo of Hope on Sardonyx, such as she is represented on medals. This same amateur is also in possession of two works of Puget; the one is a sketch, in baked earth, about one foot in height, of Milon of Crotona, which is in the gardens of Versailles; the other is a model of an equestrian statue, which it was in contemplation to erect at Marseilles, in commemoration of Louis XIV.

M. Magnan also shewed us some modern marble busts, copied from antiques; cups of jaspar and of agate; a head of a young girl, whose look and mein are expressive of great modesty; a table in mosaic; and a comic mask in marble, in a state of excellent preservation.

I had nearly forgotten to mention the etymology of the name of Orbitello, given to the principal street of Aix, where I lodged. Cardinal Mazarin, brother to the celebrated minister of the same name, was archbishop of Aix in 1645, at which period the building of this street was commenced. As the prelate was proceeding in procession to lay the foundation stone of the city gate, at the extremity of this street, a mine was sprung in the neighbouring rocks, on which the archbishop, the clergy, and all the spectators took to flight. The people said on this, that the expedition had failed like that of Orbitello in Italy, of which the father of the cardinal had been forced to raise the siege; and from this time the name of Orbitello was bestowed on this street and the adjoining quarter of the city.

CHAP. XXIX.

SAINT-SAUVEUR—STEEPLE—THE GREAT GATE—GATES—PAPTISTERY—TOMBS OF S. MITRE—ANCIENT SARCOPHAGI—LION DEVOURING AN INFANT—TOMBS OF CHARLES III.—GASPAR DE VINS—PEIRESC—EPITAPH ON ADJUTOR—INSCRIPTION ON S. BASILE—VISIT TO THOLONET.

THE metropolitan church of Saint-Sauveur next attracted our attention.

The steeple, which we perceived from a distance, is in a very good style of simple architecture; upon a solid square basement is erected a round tower with long windows in ogive, which imparts to it an appearance of lightness and elegance. It was built in 1340. The great gate was begun in 1476, and is constructed of square white stones brought from Calissane: it was not finished till 1494. We here behold some traces of the revival of the arts; the drapery of the figures is heavy, and their attitudes awkward; but the heads, which no longer exist, had a certain degree of expression. In front of the gate was a groupe representing the transfiguration; Elias was in the habit of a carmelite. The ogive is decorated with two rows of small figures, representing choirs of angels, the patriarchs, and the prophets.

Near the transfiguration were the apostles, as large as life, as well as Saint Maximin, Sainte Madeleine, S. Louis, bishop of Toulouse, S. Sidoine, and S. Mitre, all patrons of this province; all these images have been overturned, and those of the ogive mutilated.

The gates are a valuable monument in the history of art; it was long conceived that they were of cedar, but it is now found that they are of walnut-wood. They have been executed about 1504; and it is presumable that the sculpture is intended to represent some known personages, whose names were inscribed on the rolls that they held in their hands, but have been effaced by time. The habits of the females, as well as those of the men,

especially the covering of the legs and feet, indicate the fashion which prevailed toward the end of the XV. century. Each gate is divided into two large pannels; the figures are executed with great delicacy. Those above are divided into three compartments, lengthwise, each containing two figures, which make twelve in the whole. The inferior pannels are only divided into two, each of which contains a single figure, making four in all. The figures are placed in niches, supported by Corinthian pillars, surmounted by spires, or covered by light and very elegant arches. The middle pillar, which separates the two large figures, is surmounted with a Corinthian capital, and covered with painted figures in the Italian fashion, and which were extremely prevalent about the revival of the arts; these paintings are extremely elegant. The leaves, fruit, and animals which form the common frame, are also finished with the greatest care. These gates are concealed by shutters, which are only removed on grand festivals in order to gratify the curiosity of strangers. Had such precautions been taken at a more early period, these monuments of the arts might have been much more entire at the present day. This church was built at different periods, from the XII. to the XVI. century.

One of the greatest ornaments of this edifice is the Baptistery, which has existed since the XIV. century, and was rebuilt in the XVI. Of the eight columns by which it is supported, six are of very common marble, and the two others are of French granite, and not Oriental granite, as has been erroneously supposed. As these columns are of an unequal height, their basements are also of different dimensions. Each of them is formed of a single block, with the exception of one of the granitic columns.

The principal pulpit is supported by a modern amphora of the same marble as the columns.

The cornice of the altar of Saint-Mitre, behind the great altar, is ornamented by a christian tomb, which appears to be composed of two pieces; we observe in the midst Jesus Christ; he is placed on a mountain, symbolical of the duration of his church, and represented as announcing the word of God to the twelve apostles, as at one of those times between his resurrection and ascension, when he appeared to re-animate the faith of his disciples, to direct their zeal, to teach them the way to preach, throughout the earth, the doctrine of the gospel, and to disseminate the glory of his name. A man and a woman are at his feet; the woman covered with a veil, is the Virgin Mary; and the man who accompanies her is Joseph, her spouse.

Each of Christ's disciples is represented before an arcade

formed in a wall built of square stones. These twelve arcades are emblematical of the twelve gates of the celestial Jerusalem, into which it is impossible to enter without believing in Jesus Christ. The disciples of our Saviour, animated by the energy of his discourse, appear transported with divine enthusiasm. Their hands are raised as in token of inspiration, and to indicate that they are ready to propagate the holy gospel throughout the world.

The sarcophagi of the pagans are frequently surmounted with a species of frieze, of which the subjects sometimes have a relation, and sometimes not, with the principal bas-relief. The christian sculptors appear to have adopted the same practice; on the frieze of the tomb of which we are speaking, several angels are represented, holding in their hands the crown of glory, reserved for those who propagate the divine law, and become martyrs to their faith. Similar figures of angels are found on several monuments of the primitive church: the first idea of them had, doubtless, been suggested by the description of the wings of the cherubims, with which the ark was ornamented. Every individual, according to the psalmist, has a guardian angel who watches over his safety; and the christians, imbued with this opinion, represented their angels like the genii of the pagans. At the extremity of the frieze, we observe the figures of men, probably shepherds reclining near their flocks, in order to indicate the repose which is enjoyed by the christians in the bosom of their God. The extremities of the sarcophagus are decorated with human heads, in the same manner as those of the pagans are ornamented by heads of Medusa and masks, in order to keep at a distance evil spirits. Some remains of the gilding, with which this tomb had been entirely covered, are still visible. It is supposed to be the tomb of S. Mitre, and it is to this tradition that its preservation is imputable.

This tomb is supported by granitic columns. On the table is represented the martyrdom of S. Mitre, which is interesting, as it exhibits a facade of the palace of justice and that of the archbishop at the time the chapel was built. S. Mitre was a vine-dresser, and suffered death in the fifth century, by order of his master Arien. This tomb had been erected in the ancient cathedral, and was transferred to Saint-Sauveur along with the body of S. Mitre in 1383.

Upon the pavement of this chapel are two epitaphs; the one upon Aimon Nicolai, archbishop of Aix, who closed a well-spent life in 1443; the other on Jaques de la Roque, who founded the Hotel-Dieu in 1519; their figures are engraved on their tombs.

In the sanctuary, to the right of the great altar, are the figure of two lions, of marble, devouring some children. King René had placed them under his throne, in order to recal the recollection of those princes who had invaded his estates, and who were suspected of having accellerated the death of Jean de Calabre, his son, and Nicholas d'Anjou, his grandson. These groupes appear to have belonged to some tomb, and to have been executed about the period at which the arts began to decline.

Before the revolution this sanctuary contained two tombs, well worthy of attention; that of Charles III. last count of Provence, who died in 1481; and that which the leagers raised in honour of Gaspar Garde, baron de Vins, their chief, who died at the siege of Grasse in 1589. These monuments shall be more particularly considered in the subsequent chapter: that of baron de Vins has been entirely destroyed, and is now replaced, with great propriety, by that which M. de Saint-Vincens has consecrated to the memory of the immortal Peiresc.

The late president of Saint-Vincens repeated with complacency, that the most flattering eulogium that had ever been addressed to him, and that which he valued most, was contained in a letter from the Abbe Barthelemy, who said: *In raising a monument to Peiresc, you have cancelled the debt of the preceding century.*

In fact, among the learned provencals, no one has acquired a better right than Peiresc to the gratitude of his country. Yet, though he died at Aix in the midst of his family, he had been consigned to the sepulchre of his fathers, unless his nephew and heir, baron de Rians, had conceived the idea of erecting for him a tomb. Several persons were anxious to concur in this undertaking. Gafarel, the secretary and friend of Peiresc, executed a bust of this learned man from a mould taken after his death. The learned Rigault had begun his epitaph, but owing to the baron de Rians remaining at Paris, this mausoleum was never executed.

The bust of Peiresc afterwards fell into the hands of Saint-Vincens, who placed it on a monument of white marble, which he raised to the memory of this great man in the Domican church of Aix, on the spot where his ashes repose. This monument was erected in 1778.

In 1794, so fatal to the public monuments, this tomb of the friend of letters, of the benefactor of Provence, and of humanity, was swept away; fortunately, however, it was not totally destroyed; and the remains of it having been preserved by his

friends, M. de Saint-Vincens, the son of the president, has caused it to be repaired.

On the most elevated part of the monument is placed the bust of Peiresc, in a medallion in demi-relief, supported by a pediment. The following epitaph is inscribed underneath, surrounded by a drapery, and terminated by an escutcheon:

HIC SITVS
NIC. CL. FABRI PEIRESCIVS
AQVENSIS SENATOR
CHRISTIANAM RESVRRECTIONEM EXPECTANS
RECONDITISSIMOS ANTIQVARIÆ SVPPELLECTILIS THESAVROS
SAGACITATE CONSILIO LIBERALITATE
CVNCTIS ORBE TOTO DISCIPLINARVM STVDIOSIS
APERVIT
DOCTISSIMIS VNDE PROFICERENT
SÆPE MONSTRAVIT
MIRA BEATITATE FELIX
SECVLO SATIS RIXOSO, NOTISSIMVS SINE QVERELA
VIXIT
VIII. CAL. IVL. ANN. MDCXXXVII
ÆTATIS SVÆ LVII
OPTIMO VIRO BONOS OMNES
BENE ADPRECARI DECET.

On the escutcheon underneath is inscribed the following lines:

IVLIVS FR. PAVLVS FAVRIS
DE S. VINCENS
POSVIT
ANN. MDCCLXXVIII.

On the column.

VBI GASPARDVS GVARDA VINCIVS
FEDERATORVM IN PROVINCIA SECVLO XVI
PREFECTVS
IBI NVNC MONVMENTVM PEIRESCIO DICATVM
QVOD PENE DIRVTVM
RESTITVIT
IVLII FR. PAVLI FILIVS
ET IN HANC BASILICAM EX ÆDIBVS S. DOMINICI TRANSFERRI CVRAVIT
ANN. POST PEIRESCII MORTEM CLXVI.

The name of Peiresc must ever be dear to the French. No one ever rendered greater service to letters than this learned man. He encouraged authors; he furnished them with memoirs and materials; he expended his revenues in purchasing or obtaining copies of the most rare and useful manuscripts, which he liberally communicated to the learned of all nations. His correspondents were diffused over every part of the habitable globe. Experimental philosophy, the wonders of nature, the productions of art, antiquities, history, and language, were equally the objects of his study.

Peiresc, said Thomas, in affording a generous protection to the sciences and to learned men, affords an example not only to princes, but to the multitude of citizens, who squander their riches on buildings, on horses, and on every kind of superfluity; who torture nature, who build in order to pull down, and pull down in order to build; who corrupt themselves in corrupting a nation.

Peiresc, though less rich, knew how to employ his riches with dignity; so that he was equally celebrated for his munificence as for his knowledge.

In the nave of Saint-Sacrement, near the small obscure chapel, previous to the revolution, was an epitaph on Adjutar, a public penitent, who died under the consulate of Anastase in 497.

HIC IN PACE QVIESCIT ADIVTOR QVI POST
ACCEPTAM PŒNITENTIAM MIGRAVIT AD
DOMINVM ANN. LXV MENSES VII DIES XV
DEPOSITVS S. D. IV KAL IANVARIAS
ANASTASIO V. C. CONSVLE.

It is to be hoped that this inscription, will be replaced in its former situation.

Opposite to this first epitaph, is an inscription, which mentions Basile, bishop of Aix. In the letters of Sidoine Apollinaire there is one addressed to him. Sidoine, without expressly mentioning the situation of Basile, sufficiently indicates it by mentioning its distance between Riez, Marseilles, and Arles. This inscription is mutilated. We are ignorant of the exact period at which S. Basile lived; but he is known to have been employed in negociating the peace with Evaric king of the Goths, in 475.

In this nave, besides other inscriptions, are some consecrated to the English, who died at Aix in 1730 and 1745.

With the view of diversifying the objects of our pursuit, M. de Saint-Vincens conducted us to Tholonet, to the residence of M. de Gallifet, who permitted any respectable company from Aix to walk in his grounds, which are extremely beautiful and picturesque. In front of the chateau was a handsome terrace, planted with beautiful trees beneath which the company dance on Sundays; magnificent alleys afford a delightful shelter from the heat of the meridian sun; copious and limpid springs, collected in an artificial lake, form numerous cascades, which afterwards glide along with a soothing and murmuring noise over the fields, and are united in one canal. A sterile rock rises in the middle of this rural scene; and the beautiful habitation greatly contributes to augment the interest of the picture, of which it constitutes the basis. Nothing is wanting to the pleasure that we experienced in this charming place, but the presence of the proprietor, whose manners are so affable and obliging. In this territory are marble quarries. The marble procured from them is a yellowish breccia, which is termed marble of Tholonet. It takes a very beautiful polish. The houses and churches are decorated with it.

It was likewise in the domain of Tholonet that we discovered a beautiful plant of the family of the ranunculi, to which Tournefort has bestowed the name of garidellia nigellastrum, in honour of a celebrated botanist at Aix, who discovered it.

CHAP. XXX.

ANCIENT MAUSOLEA—TOMBS OF THE COUNTS OF PROVENCE—ALPHONSO II.—INHUMATION OF RAYMOND BERENGER—BOUCLIER—BEATRIX HIS SPOUSE—THE LAST JUDGMENT—STATUE OF CHARLES II.—TOMB OF CHARLES III.—OF BARON DE VINS.

NOTHING can excite greater interest than the view of regal tombs erected in Gothic temples, which are only penetrated by a melancholy and solemn light. The sentiments we experience on beholding ancient and diversified costumes, arms, banners, emblems, and symbols of piety, power and valour, infuse into the soul a soothing melancholy, which is neither devoid of interest nor charms. He who mourns over the cruelty of fortune contemplates with a kind of satisfaction the nothingness of gran-

deur: he reflects on the period when those princes and nobles flourished, whose ashes now repose beneath these tombs; he investigates their history; he cites them before the tribunal of reason; he scrutinizes their actions with severity; he no longer feels appalled by the pomp which surrounds them; he either adds his own testimony to the praises awarded them, or contradicts the flattering epitaphs inscribed upon their tombs. He delights to pause before the august images of kings who have constituted the happiness of their people; he cherishes, with pleasure, the idea that the tyrant stretched beneath the marble cannot again rise up and dictate his sanguinary decrees. How greatly is the soul elevated, when contemplating the mausolea of the brave! Who can view those of Montmorency, of Crillon, and of Duguesclin, without emotion? He conceives in imagination that the warlike trumpet is about to sound, in order to awaken these courageous heroes from the sleep of death, and that they are prepared to dart forward under the auspices of the angel of victory. He compassionates the destiny of unfortunate princes; palliates their faults, and pardons their weaknesses. But he despises cowardice and detests crimes.

The contemplation of these monuments affords, at the same time, a moral and historical lesson. They bring to our recollection the manners and customs of former times, and enable us to discover the different state of the Arts. If we justly regret that the temples have been despoiled of these ornaments, we ought, at least, to endeavour to collect what yet remains of them.

The tombs of the counts of Provence, which formerly decorated several of the churches of Aix, have been completely destroyed, and were never engraven; their recollection must, therefore, have been absolutely lost to posterity, had not my learned friend, M. de Saint-Vincens caused them to be delineated.

The first of these tombs was in the church of Saint-John. It is divided into three parts; the facade of that in the middle is surmounted by a pediment adorned with leaves of acanthus, and with three pyramids; the inner part of this pediment is arched in ogive, and ornamented with roses supported by saints and angels. At the two lateral extremities are monsters holding in their talons a human skull; the vaulted arches which support the roses are likewise decorated with heads at the point where they meet. This facade is supported by pillars formed of many small columns, the head of which is composed of ivy.

On the tomb which is placed beneath this monument, and the border of which is ornamented with acanthus or bears-foot, reclines a man habited in the dress formerly worn by the Knights

of Saint-John, with his hands joined, and his feet, according to the custom of the times, resting on a dog. It represents the figure of Alphonso II. count of Provence, who died at Palermo in 1209. It was his wish that his body should be removed to Aix, and interred in the church of Saint-John. It was this prince who introduced into Provence a taste for poetry, tournaments, and chivalry.

To the left, in a niche, decorated with pyramids, and supported by isolated columns, the capitals of which are formed of a double row of oak leaves, lies Raymond Berenger IV. son of Alphonso, and the last Count of the house of Barcelona. He is represented standing, and covered with a coat of mail. He is also provided with gauntlets and armour for the thighs. A long sword appears suspended to his girdle. He holds in the right hand the golden rose presented to him in 1244, by Pope Innocent IV. With the other hand he leans upon a massy buckler, resembling that suspended over Alphonso II. Raymond Berenger died in 1245.

To the right is a nearly similar niche, which contains a statue of Beatrix, of Savoy, wife of Raymond. This princess died in 1266. She appears dressed in a long robe, with a crown upon her head, and a species of flower work suspended from the neck.

I have already spoken of Beatrix of Savoy, and her august husband. It is delightful to contemplate, under these Gothic niches, the images of those princes who have been the patrons of literature: Berenger is represented as engaged in a tournament, and Beatrix listening to the verses of a troubadour.

The small sides of the tomb of Alphonso II. displays to us more particularly, the elevation of the pyramids, surmounted and ornamented by oak leaves; under one of the pediments decorated with leaves of acanthus, we behold the soul of one of the two counts leaving his coffin, and carried in a sheet, by angels, to the abode of the blessed. An angel, holding a censer, continues to perfume this soul, which is about to be admitted into the presence of God; and another angel places on his head the crown of immortality.

Let us now examine the bas-relief with which the tomb of Alphonso is decorated, the columns partly conceal it from view, on which account it has been engraved separately with its small sides. The general subject would appear to be the opening of the tomb, and the funeral of Alphonso: the figure, which is inclosed in it, is altogether similar to the one above. The small sides constitute a part of the same subject: it begins with the little side toward the left; where we observe four priests, who

testify more or less sensibly the sorrow which afflicts them, on witnessing the mournful ceremony at which they assist.

The first object which strikes our attention on the great side, is the coffin, wherein reposes the noble count; two Monks appear exerting themselves to support the stone, and endeavour to prevent it falling till the examination of the objects which it contains have been completed. The bishop, who presides at this examination, raises his hand, with the fore finger pointing towards heaven, and seems to announce that God is disposed to admit Alphonso among his chosen people; the form of his mitre is remarkable. A jolly monk appears attentively listening to the discourse, which the holy bishop pronounces on this occasion. Another priest carries the cross; this funeral ceremony being always sanctified by the token of our redemption. During this time, a monk reads a writing, which doubtless contains the minutes of this melancholy ceremony; and he who accompanies him attends to his reading, as if to aid him in the explanation, or to mark that he commits no error. The composition of this part of the bas-relief has been skilfully executed, considering the period at which it was performed.

The remainder is not so happily executed. All the figures are upon the same plane; there are monks and priests, who take more or less interest in the action. The first, near the tomb, holds a prayer-book; the second raises a censer; the priest who follows is covered with a large hood, fastened with a metal clasp. The bishop, who next succeeds, seems in the attitude of prayer; behind him stands a knight of Saint John, holding an unfolded roll, displaying a list of the donations made by Alphonso and Raymond to his order. Those who come afterwards are two canons, one of whom is seen in the front, and the other in the back ground. From the hood of their cloak, depends a bonnet tucked up, and folded round their head. The bas-relief terminates on the small side by a mourner tearing his hair, and a female mourner kneeling, wrapt in a large veil, and expressing the most dreadful despair.

This mausoleum was finished in 1250; and probably the statue of Beatrix was place therein afterwards, since she died only in 1266. This singular bas-relief, is valuable, because it shews the dresses of the bishops, the priests, the canons, &c. such as they wore during the middle of the thirteenth century.

Underneath this vault, above the tomb that incloses Alphonso and his son, is suspended the shield of these two princes, which they employed in tournaments. It was formed of wood, covered with thick leather, on which were painted with pales of gold and gules; the leather having been injured, it has been pieced

in several pieces, and on these pieces are painted the arms of Arragon. With what pleasure we contemplate at Bourdeaux, the sword of Bayard, the worthy chevalier! The sword and buckler of Francis I. preserved in the hall of the cabinet of antiques, in the imperial library, attract our attention less on account of the great beauty of the workmanship, than from the recollection of the brave and loyal king to whom they belonged. A more appropriate and august decoration could not have been imagined for the tomb we have described, than the shield of the generous Counts of Alphonso and Raymond, battered in tournaments, and cleft to its extremity by the lances. The names of these great men, were not, however, sufficient to protect this relic, and it was demolished by those impious individuals, who laid violent hands on the ashes of the dead.

The tomb of Beatrix is equally interesting, as the preceding. This princess was the fourth daughter of Raymond, who bequeathed to her his estates of Provence. Louis IX. and Raymond VII. Count of Toulouse, disputed with her the succession; but the difference was terminated by the marriage of Beatrix with Charles I. of Anjou, brother of S. Louis, and king of Sicilly. She died at Nocera in 1277, and earnestly desired to be interred at Saint-Jean d'Aix, beside her father and grandfather; but the pope was obliged to threaten her husband with excommunication, in order to compel him to fulfil the last will of this princess.

The vault is supported by several pillars, with capitals formed like the preceding, of two rows of oak leaves; each edge of the pediment is terminated by a leaf of the same species, and these leaves being elegantly disposed in a single row, form to it a very handsome border. In the midst of the double pediment, is a rose in a crown: angels which are placed on human heads support a rose. The pyramids are truncated, or rather their bases are elongated; that in the middle bears the image of the most high. In his left hand he holds the globe surmounted by a cross, emblematical of the world redeemed by his son, while the right is raised as in the act of pronouncing his terrible judgments. He is placed in the clouds, and surrounded by angels and saints; one of them holds in his hand the book of the evangelists, in order to indicate that there is no salvation to the transgessors of this holy law, and another bears in one hand a balance symbolical of the equity with which the Almighty weighs his judgments and measures the actions of men, and in the other a vase of lustral water, announcing that the mercy of God in punishing crimes, pardons those faults which a necessary purification must, however, expiate. The surrounding angels sound the last trum-

pet, in order to summon the dead to their last judgment; we behold them, on the base of the tomb, in the act of disencumbering themselves from the habiliments of the grave; they appear as if awakening from a long and profound sleep, and the expression of their features is strongly indicative of astonishment and terror. These figures are enclosed in two Gothic frames.

Three other similar frames, two of which are upon the bottom of the tomb above the princess, and the third on the small side, to the left of the base, near the last judgment, contains the figures of the twelve apostles. Upon the small side to the right, are represented the three sons of Beatrix, who died before her.

Under the dome of the canopy is seen two angels, bearing away the soul of the princess, and two others scattering incense over it.

Near the same spot, previous to the Revolution, stood a monument to the memory of Charles II. of Anjou, son of Charles I. and Beatrix, who died at Naples, 4th May, 1309.

There is at Aix, besides those already mentioned, the tomb of the last Count of Provence, Charles III.; son of Charles Count of Maine, and nephew to King René. He died at Marseilles, in 1481. Louis XI. who was left his heir, charged the Grand Senechal Palamède of Forbin to erect this monument to his memory; the architecture is not, however, either so light or elegant as that of the preceding; but the epitaph, which alludes to the weakness of this prince, and the short duration of his reign, is extremely emphatic.

Lilia Francorum, cœlestia munera, Regum,
Reliquias veteris Andegavæque domûs,
Occulit iste lapis cœlataque marmora claudunt;
Obruta sic fatis regia sceptra jacent.
Jerusalem et Siculos, et, si per fata licerет,
Arragones poterat nostra tenere manus;
Sed fortuna, diù nostros ne ferret honores,
Accelerat mortis tempora dura mihi.
Qui legis hoc tristi conscriptum marmore carmen,
Dic: Tibi sit requies, Carole, paxque tibi!

M. de Saint-Vincens has preserved the design of the tomb of Gaspar Garde Baron de Vins, chief of the Leaguers in Provence, who died before Grasse, to which place he laid seige, on the 20th November 1589.

The front of the tomb is decorated with trophies and figures of valour and religion. The baron, covered with his armour,

is kneeling before a praying desk. This tomb, which was erected at the expence of the province, has been destroyed, and the spot on which it stood is at present occupied by that of Pieresc. The three following inscriptions accompanies it.

ASTA, VIATOR, MAGNI VINCII MARMOR ADEST: PERLEGE! MAGNUS ILLE VINCIUS, SALIORUM OPTIMATUM SPLENDOR, SENATUS POPULIQUE SEXTIANI AMOR DELICIÆVE, SANCTIORIS FŒDERIS GALLICI APUD SALLOS EXERCITUS EX SENATUS-CONSULTO PRÆFECTUS; HÆRETICIS, GALLIAM POPULARI COGITANTIBUS, QUINQUIES COLLATIS SIGNIS APUD DIONYSIACUM CELTARUM*, COGNATIUM†, MONCONTURSIUM GALLICANTIUM PICTO NUM‡, ONETIUM AURELIANORUM‖, PROSTRATIS, ATQUE INGENTI GERMANORUM STRAGE SUB DIVIS PRINCIPIBUS GALLOGUISIIS FACTA, TANDEM, QUINQUAGENARIUS PENE, DUM FACTIONEM HÆRETICAM SOCIATAM, DIRA OMNIA, SALIIS MINITANTEM, IN ASPERA JUGIA MONTIUM BELLICA VIRTUTE, SINGULARI PRUDENTIA, PARI FELICITATE COMPELLERET, ET GRASSIUM OPPIDUM SALIORUM** OPPUGNARET.

POST QUARTUM IN EXPEDITIONE RUPELLÆ AQUITANORUM††, SPONTE UT REGIO PECTORE IN SUUM DEDUCERET TELUM FLAMMEUM EXCEPTUM: QUINTO, PROH DOLOR! E MŒNIBUS IN CEREBRUM EMISSO CONFECTUS, DULCISSIMAM PATRIAM, SUAVISSIMOS LIBEROS, FRANCISCUM ET GASPAREM CARISSIMO PARENTE ORBOS, PERPETUO LUCTU VOTA FACIENTES LIQUIT. 12. KALEND. DECEMBR. ANNO INSTIT. SALUT. 1589. BENE MERENTI BENE PRECARE, VIATOR.

Upon the lowermost basement of the same musoleum, was the following:

NON POTUIT FERRO VINCI, NON VINCIUS ARTE
VINCIRI; ID MARTIS, PALLADIS ISTUD OPE.
VINCERE SED FERRO, VINCIRE SED ARTIBUS HOSTES
QUOD SUETUS, NOMEN VINCIUS INDE TULIT.
MULCIBEREM, NE VINCTA FORET, SED VICTA POPOSCIT
MORS; HINC SULPHUREO VINCIUS IGNE CADIT.

* Saint-Denis. † Cognac. ‡ Montcontour en Poitou.
‖ Auneau en Orléanois. ** Grasse. †† La Rochelle.

And above the vault, the following Latin distich was inscribed:

SCIRE VELIS QUANTUS FUERIM? GERMANIA DICET,
DICET ET INNUMERIS GALLIA NOSTRA LOCIS.

CHAP. XXXI

PROCESSIONS AMONG THE ANCIENTS—CHRISTIAN PROCESSIONS—THE FESTIVAL OF THE HOLY SACRAMENT—SIMILAR CEREMONIES MODIFIED BY CIRCUMSTANCES—PROCESSION OF AIX INSTITUTED BY KING RENE——ITS MYSTERIES—OBSERVATIONS ON THE ORIGIN AND OBJECT OF THIS FESTIVAL.

AMONG civil and religious institutions, none is perhaps of greater antiquity, or conveys to the mind more interest, than those assemblages of men, termed by the ancients Shews, but which we denominate processions. There is no people, or nation, whose history has been handed down to us, among which this custom is not to be found. The great number of figures which we observe on the walls of the ancient Persepolis, is composed of men of a serious mein and air, accompanied by others bearing the instruments of their profession. The august procession of the Panathenæa, so sacred in the eyes of the inhabitants of Attica, is still to be seen upon the frieze of the temple of Minerva, at Athens. But each people imparts to their religious fesitivals the stamp of their own character.

Among the Greeks, they were intended to recal to the minds of the citizens, the sacred names of the first authors of their civilization, by which they honoured the gods themselves, or at least princes sprung from the blood of the gods. The military spirit of the Romans was evident in their manners, customs, language, and religion; the warlike Minerva took precedence of the august Juno, in the presence of Jupiter. The warlike Salii, when dancing marked the cadence with their swords, by which their sacred breast-plates were made to resound. Among their military ceremonies, the most magnificent were those in which the conquerors caused to be carried before them the spoils taken from the subjugated nations, while the captive kings and their families were chained to their triumphal cars.

The processions are numerous in the christian worship. It is

especially during great calamities; such as pestilential maladies, destructive winds, and rains, which destroy the fruits of the earth, that they proceed in procession to implore the goodness of the Deity. Among these ceremonies, the annual procession, when they solicit the Deity to send refreshing showers, in order to fecundate the fruits of the earth, is peculiarly affecting; while that of the festival of the holy sacrament, which is more particularly consecrated to him, is the most solemn. It was instituted towards 1264, by Pope Urban IV.

Religious ceremonies depict, for the most part, the character of the nation which celebrates them; though they are frequently modified by particular circumstances. Thus, in the processions of the League, fanaticism armed with carabines, some turbulent monks. King René, a valiant chevalier, and an enlightened monarch; a poet, painter, and musician, imparted the stamp of his own enlightened mind and cultivated taste to every thing he undertook; this was the case with the singular procession which he instituted in 1462.

René expended a considerable sum on this festival, and afterwards appropriated a fund for its annual celebration, which met with no opposition, till 1645, when a remonstrance was addressed to Gassendi against this solemnity.

Notwithstanding this and similar complaints, the festival was not discontinued. M. de Grimaldi in vain attempted to suppress the profane scenes attendant on its celebration; but the discontents of the people forced him to desist.

Like all other religious ceremonies, this festival was abolished during the revolution: but after the concordat, the inhabitants of Aix petitioned for its re-establishment.

This ceremony was, doubtless, more brilliant on its first institution; at present it is celebrated in the following manner:

The nomination of the lieutenant of the prince of love, of the king of the lawyer's clerks, and of the abbé of the youth, who are the chiefs of the festival, takes place on the Monday of Pentecost: their officers are chosen on Trinity day. The different troops of horse, which make part of the procession, parade through the city, and assemble in the evening in the square of the Trinity.

About seven in the evening of the day preceding the grand procession, the officers of the king of the lawyer's clerks repair to the cathedral, as well as those belonging to the abbé of the city, whence they march together, through the principal streets, to the sound of very lively music. This procession, which is in imitation of a forced march, is termed *passado*.

After viewing the march of these officers, who stopped to

perform their evolutions before the ladies, we proceeded to the municipality to witness the preparations for the extraordinary ceremony, to which is given the appellation of *lou guét.*

All those who intend to assist at this ceremony are instructed in the part they have to perform; and the different actors are furnished from the magazines with the habits and attributes of the divinities. The distribution of the different parts is an affair of great consequence. A man whom they refused to admit among the number of the devils, gained over his judges by the following repartee: *my father has been a devil, my grand-father has been a devil, wherefore then should not I?* After these preliminaries are gone through, all the gods and goddesses of Olympus are successively called: a butcher's boy appeared, to fill the part of the chaste Diana, and a large bloated figure performed that of love; the august Juno swore, and the redoubtable Mars was thrown down by Venus, who was provoked at being interrupted at her toilette, just as she was smoothing down her hair with the end of a candle. In fact, Olympus appeared to be in as great confusion as when the audacious Titans revolted against Jupiter. It was necessary, however, that the god who reigns in the clouds, should force, by his angry nod, each to assume his proper station: but the horrible grimace which the substitute for the master of the gods and men, was so truly ludicrous, that it was better calculated to excite risibility than to make us tremble; it was precisely similar to the celebrated caricature of Hogarth's, *Comedians in a barn.*

When the procession began to move, we returned to the house of M. de Saint-Vincens, to see it pass the square, which is the place where it could be best observed. The cavalcade was preceded by four officers, or staffsmen; over their habits, which were slashed and covered with ribbons, was thrown a scarf, the colour of which indicated, that they belonged either to the abbé of the youth, or the king of the lawyer's clerks: they were followed by two torch-bearers; the police-agents, with their appropriate badges, the cane and medallion; and the guards of the police. Fame next followed upon a lean horse, which was led by one of the torch-bearers. The costume of the goddess was still more ridiculous than the style in which she was mounted. It was a yellow robe, through which passed two large goose wings; she wore round her neck a white ruff, and her bonnet, with a yellow border, was ornamented with four small wings and a plume. Fifes and drums formed a concert, calculated to please a goddess who delights in noise and uproar.

Torch-bearers announced a new groupe; all the other groupes were also accompanied by them. The present was composed

of men on foot and on horseback, preceded by a drum and a standard; they were armed with long pikes; on the back of the corsets with which they were clothed, was a golden cross; and the breast was decorated with a similar ornament. These were the chevaliers of *lou guét*, intended to represent the *Chevaliers of the Cross*, an order instituted by King René.

Drums and fifes next indicated the approach of the duke and duchess of Urbin, mounted on asses. M. Gregoire is of opinion, that this prince, while commanding the troops of the pope, had been beaten, and that his shameful defeat had led them to treat him with an indignity, which the lapse of three ages has not been able to wipe off. But Frederick, the natural son of Prince Gui Antoine, who succeeded to the sovereignty of Urbin, by the suffrages of the people, made them forget, by his valour, his exploits, and his noble qualities, the stain of his birth. He was considered as one of the most illustrious warriors of his time; and Raphael de Volterre compares him to Phillip of Macedon. It is true that this Duke was beaten, in 1460, by Count Piccinino, who commanded the troops of John of Anjou, son of King René: but victory is inconstant; and we can scarcely excuse this good king for thus ridiculing a generous enemy, whom victory had for once abandoned, though success had frequently crowned his enterprises. The Duchess, whom King René has associated with her spouse, in this absurd ceremony, is Baptista Sforce, daughter of Alexander Sforce, whom the Duke married in 1459, after the death of Gentile Baraccaleone.

The Duke, grotesquely habited in yellow and red, wore a bonnet surmounted by a crown, and held in his hand a bouquet. The head of the Duchess was loaded with an enormous peruke; her crown was adorned with green and white plumes, and she was rapidly agitating a large fan. René was so much beloved by his people that they, doubtless, displayed their gaiety by addressing, to these his enemies, the most cutting railleries, even at present they hail the appearance of the asses with shouts of laughter.

Some chevaliers *du guet*, next followed, accompanied by trumpets and kettle-drums; they announced the approach of the laughter-loving god Momus; to his party-coloured garments were attached bells, as well as to his large bonnet; he held in one of his hands a mask.

Mercury next appeared, with his winged hat and his wand, accompanied by night. The black clothes of the goddess were studded with stars, and she held in her hand soporific poppies.

A hideous train now preceded the gloomy Pluto, and the sable divinities who form his frightful court. The first groupe was com-

posed of *razcassetos*, a name given to a parcel of miserable wretches employed to represent the lepers of the scriptures. Their vestments consisted of a fringed apron before, and another behind, to which were attached two rows of large bells. One of them held a comb; another, a brush; and a third, an enormous pair of barber's scissars: all of them wore a smooth head-stall, and they were incessantly employed in combing, brushing, and shaving the peruke, which was fastened to the head-stall of another razcasseto, who sometimes endeavoured to escape from the hands of his importunate barbers.

This name is supposed to have originated from the wars between the *Razats* and *Carcistes*. But whatever may be the etymology of this appellation, it is certain, that the *Razcassetos* were hideous, and their garments disgusting.

Moses, the Jewish law-giver, followed these miserable beings; his forehead was ornamented with two rays of light; he pointed with a rod to the tables of the law. The high-priest stood by his side, dressed in the habit of his order, and wearing the breast-plate: they both endeavoured to lead the Israelites to the worship of the true God. During this time they wandered however, after idolatry, dancing around the golden calf, which one of them carried above his head, elevated on the end of a staff: they cried *ouhoou ouhoou*, in token of contempt, when passing before Moses and the High Priest; and another threw into the air a poor cat, which he recovered, in its fall, with considerable address; on which account they term this scene the *play of the cat*.

The Israelites were clothed in black mantles, and wore a coarse head-dress with two large protuberances, which rendered it more disgusting. They contemned the wise precepts of their conductor and the venerable pontiff: hell triumphed. The god who reigns in the regions below, Pluto, appeared in his sable vestments, studded with flames; round his neck was a black ruff bordered with red, and he wore a black and red bonnet in the form of a crown. He carried in his hand the formidable sceptre which makes the spirits of the departed tremble, and the key under which he retains them, in order to indicate, as Dante has observed, that *those who once enter his empire must even renounce Hope*. Pluto was followed by his spouse, who was habited in a similar costume. The gloomy Proserpine leaves to her husband his ebon sceptre; she held in one hand a flambeau, symbolical of the torments that the wicked experience in hell, and in the other a key, indicating that the vigilance she exercises is equally strict as that of the god to whom she is united.

She is accompanied by sable demons. This scene is termed

lou pichoun jues déis diabiles, or *the little sport of the devils*, or *the little soul.* An infant, in a white waistcoat, and having black legs, held in his hand a large cross; notwithstanding this holy sign, horned demons, armed with forked sticks, endeavoured to carry it off; but an angel, clothed in white, with golden wings, and whose head was surrounded with a glory, protected it, and received on his back, furnished with a thick cushion, the blows intended for his little charge. The soul and he passed alternately on each side of the cross, which they held between them. At the termination of this pastime, the angel leaped up, in order to testify his joy at having preserved the soul from the evil designs of the wicked.

The next groupe, which was more numerous, is termed *the great sport of the devils*, or *simply the devils.* The barbarous Herod, known by his crown, was delivered up to their fury, as a punishment for his massacre of the innocents: twelve demons, dressed like the former, harrassed him with their forks, which the poor monarch endeavoured to ward off with his sceptre; he leaped to the right and the left, in such a manner as seemed to give infinite delight to the populace.

The infernal deities disappeared on the approach of Neptune and Amphitrite. These marine sovereigns were mounted on terrestrial horses; they were clothed in blue habits, and the god held in his hand his formidable trident, while Amphitrite carried two dolphins.

Warlike music preceded the bearers of quoits, which are probable intended to recal the game of quoits, so fatal to the beautiful Hyacinth. This music also indicates the approach of a joyous groupe of satyrs and nymphs, clothed in green. The satyrs had breeches covered with hair; a long tail, horns, and long ears, to their little hats; the nymphs were crowned with roses, and carried verdant branches in their hands; to their habits were attached bells. Pan and Syrinx followed on horseback. Syrinx carries a bunch of those reeds which preserved her from the ardent pursuit of the god of the shepherds, when he pursued her even to the banks of Ladon. Pan played on his flute, the sounds of which recalled to our recollection the metamorphoses by which she concealed herself from his tenderness: he was clothed in a goats skin and wore on his head a shepherds hat, ornamented with a plume.

A small two-wheeled car, or rather a cart, decorated with grapes and raisins, next approached, in which was triumphantly seated the god of the vintage. He possessed not the eternal youth, the effeminate and languishing beauty, which characterizes him in the ancient works of art. This was not the

Bacchus of the Greeks, but a figure resembling that painted on the signs of our inns. His costume was however more decent; he was habited in a spotted waistcoat, and over his shoulders was thrown a panthers skin, in the form of a mantle. A tun formed his throne; he was armed with a bottle and a gourd, hollowed out in the form of a cup, and he encouraged his attendants to drink with him.

Mars closely followed the rosy god, armed with his casque and buckler; as well as Minerva, who held in her hand her formidable lance, and the head of the insolent Medusa.

Centaurs frequently constitute part of the train of Bacchus, on antique monuments; and those which we observed attached to the bodies of horses, who followed him in this procession, we at first mistook for these beings; but a nearer view convinced us that they were only young people, who had fixed paste-board horses to their girdles, the trappings of which concealed their limbs; they carried in the hand a small rod, decorated with ribbons, and performed their singular evolutions to a sprightly tune, said to be composed by king René. This cavalcade is termed *chivaouz frux*, or fringed horses.

M. Gregoire is of opinion, that the dance performed with these paste-board horses, is in imitation of an ancient horse dance, which probably was instituted in the age of chivalry, and formed one of the amusements at court, during the reign of Brantôme and Bassompierre. It was prevalent in Spain as late as 1775, and is at present not an uncommon spectacle in Franconia.

This species of pastime would appear to be very ancient; it has been revived in Italy on several different occasions, from a very remote period. We have besides seen similar cavalcades in the sports of *Don John of Armenia*, termed *le tournois*, in the *Duel* of Harlequin, and in all the masquerades of the Carnival.

After these pacific divinities followed Mars, Pallas, and their warlike troop. The chaste Diana carried her bow and arrows; at her back hung her quiver, and her bonnet was ornamented with the crescent. On that of Apollo was displayed a sun; this deity held his lyre in his hand, from which he drew the most harmonious sounds, and the cock, which is an emblem of the divine art of imparting health to the sick.

The queen of Sheba, on her visit to Solomon, formed the next groupe. He executed in her presence a very animated dance. The attendants of the queen carried a silver cup, symbolical of the offerings presented to him by their sovereigns. The king is always chosen from among the best dancers of the

city, and they are obliged to afford a specimen of their talents before their admission.

Saturn now appeared in a flesh-coloured habit, and his bonnet surmounted by a sickle; in his hand he carried a serpent, symbolical of eternity. Sybil, who accompanied him, is crowned with a painted tower; she held in her hand a pine branch.

The little dancers and the great dancers preceded the grand car of the master of the gods. Their white vestments were decorated with coloured ribbons. They bore in their hands scapularies, and a small rod ornamented with rose coloured ribbons, which served to mark the cadence of the music to which they danced, and which is said also to be composed by king René.

The grand four wheeled car, at length approached, drawn by four horses. Jupiter held in his hand his thunder and his eagle, and Juno her sceptre and her peacock; both were crowned with tin. Before them was seated Venus, holding in her hand a bouquet of flowers; and near to her was Cupid with his bow and arrows, accompanied with the sports, the smiles and the graces. The bottom of the car was gilded, decorated with box and ivy leaves, and surrounded with lamps and flambeaus.

The procession was closed by the Fates: Clotho carried the distaff, Lachesis the thread, and Atropos the formidable scissars.

This numerous cavalcade, attended by an immense crowd, proceeded through the principal streets of the city. René would unquestionably have better fulfilled his object, had he contented himself with representing the Pagan divinities alone; but the other groupes appear to have been associated with them for the purpose of swelling the procession, and repeating the sports which they were to perform on the following day.

King René has exhibited, in the organization of this spectacle, the most convincing proof of his pacific disposition, and the goodness of his heart.

In Italy, and more particularly in Spain, these divinities would have been overcome in a terrible encounter, and afterwards hunted and tormented by the devils. Here, on the contrary, they are suffered to exert their empire over the earth during the night; and on the approach of Aurora they vanish with the shades of night, the emblem of ignorance; then commences the festival of the creator; it is the triumph of religion, a triumph which has nothing inhuman, nothing sanguinary in its nature, and which announces a god of peace and of mercy.

On the following morning, the sound of bells preceded the ceremony. Yesterday the procession began to move at six in

the morning, to day it was near two in the afternoon before it set out.

We passed this day at the house of M. d'Albertas, and witnessed the cavalcade from his windows, before which they stopped to perform their different sports.

The Pagan divinities are supposed to have fled before the presence of the most high, and therefore did not appear; their place were supplied by other groupes which made no part of the former procession, and it is them only, I shall here stop to describe particularly.

The cavalcade was headed by the Chevaliers of the cross, after which followed Moses and the Israelites, the Lepers, the Queen of Sheba, and the Devils. A new groupe then appeared termed the *Bello-Estello*, or beautiful star. It is composed of three Magii, each followed by a page, in their way to Bethlehem, guided by the star in the east. The caps of the Magii, were in the form of the girdle of a crown, while those of the pages were shaped like a sugar loaf. They all carried a box in the shape of a pyramid, intended to represent the myrrh, frank incense and gold which they were going to present to the Holy Child.

The little sports of the devils, already noticed, next followed: and after them appeared a groupe, denominated *Leis tirapouns*. It was composed of Herod, with a crown on his head, and having a sun upon his breast. He was accompanied by a kettle-drum, a flag, and a fusileer; the innocents, who have no other clothing but a coarse shirt, run about in the greatest terror, setting up the most doleful cries. The king gave the signal, with his sceptre, for the massacre; the drum beat, the flag was agitated, and on the report of the fusee the infants fell to the earth. Moses appeared amongst them, displaying the book of the law; but why he was placed in this situation, it is now impossible to conjecture: near to him we observed a kind of school-master, with a book in his hand, intended perhaps, to represent the pedagogue of these children, and who is generally, it should seem, chosen from among the greatest blackguards of the city.

This groupe was followed by the fringed horses, and after them, *Leis Apotros*, the apostles. Judas was at the head of the train, bearing the purse; Saint Paul followed, with the great sword in his hand; and afterwards the rest of the evangelists, two and two, with their appropriate insignia. Formerly Christ used to close the train, habited like a capuchin, and bearing his cross; but when we saw him, he was cloathed in a long robe.

Saint Christopher next appeared, and was quickly followed by

staffsmen, pikemen, and flag-bearers, gaily dressed in silk, who preceded the approach of the *Abbé of the city*, or *of the youth*, who was clothed in a black habit, and wore a mantle of the same colour; then appeared the *King of the lawyer's clerks*, dressed in white, with a mantle of silver cloth; and lastly, the *Lieutenant of the Prince of Love*. They saluted the spectators, at the windows, as the procession passed, in the rear of which was Death, who brandished his scythe to the right and left, crying *hahoou hahoou*. There were formerly many other characters introduced into this procession, such as Adam and Eve, Cain and Abel, the sacrifice of Abraham, &c. &c. but they have lately been suppressed. The groupe which seemed to afford the greatest amusement to the populace, was the troop of *Satyrs*, in the train of *Momus*, who greeted the multitude with a thousand pleasantries. An unfortunate old miser, a suspicious husband, and a fickle wife, never fail to be designated in verses often malignant, but always artless, since the authors belong to the uneducated class of the people.

A bricklayer, named Belthazar Roman, in 1605, and for a long time afterwards, had the direction of these farces. The Consuls allowed him a salary for his compositions; and those who dreaded his simple, but severe bons mots, purchased his silence. He died in 1645, and was succeeded by his son, *Arnaud Roman*, who continued to act as composer of those sports till 1660, which being a period of trouble and divisions, several persons of distinction took advantage of this means, to level their attacks at each other, till the government found it necessary to interfere, and the modern Momus was convicted of high treason.

The object of the good King René, in the institution of this festival, has given rise to much difference of opinion. M. Gregoire thinks that it is an union of the military exercises of the ancient chevaliers, with religious ceremonies, and some interludes or pantomimes, taken from the sacred writings. This opinion appears, however, to be wholly gratuitous, since it is evident, that they bear not the least resemblance to a tournament; it should rather seem, that the monarch intended to exhibit a grand pantomime during two days, which should represent the fabled festivals of Olympus, during the dark ages, and afterwards the triumph of Religion over Paganism. This vast plan afforded a wide range for the exercise of his poetical taste, in the composition of his religious and profane groupes.

CHAP. XXXI.

MINERALOGICAL CABINET OF THE ELDER M. DE FONS-COLOMBE—ENTOMOLOGY OF M. DE FONS-COLOMBE THE YOUNGER—HOTEL BUILT BY PUGET—TORSE—SQUARE OF PREACHERS—FOUNTAIN—CHURCH OF SAINT-MAGDELEN—ANNUNCIATION ATTRIBUTED TO ALBERT DURER—ARABIC INSCRIPTION, &c.—SINGULAR CALVARY---POETRY BY RENE'---HIS TASTE FOR LITERATURE AND THE ARTS---PICTURE OF KING RENE', PAINTED BY HIMSELF---THE BURNING BUSH, &c.---PASSAGE OF THE RED SEA, ON A CHRISTIAN SARCOPHAGUS.

THE day of our departure was fixed; we had yet, however, many things to examine. We particularly regretted, that it was not in our power to view the valuable collection of insects belonging to the younger M. de Fons-Colombe. His father had the goodness to shew us his mineralogical cabinet, which contains many rare and curious specimens.

Among others we remarked a calcareous stone, which had the impression of several small fishes on its surface, about an inch long, and very well characterized; it was found in a plaster quarry near Aix.

We saw, in the saloon, a picture by Puget, in which this celebrated artist has represented himself, his wife, and his son, under the allegory of the holy family.

The third son of M. de Fons-Colombe, who, though still very young, has delivered himself up to the study of antiquities and medals, accompanied us. On our return, he led us past the hotel, formerly occupied by the Marquis of Argens; the facade of which is finished in a very good style. This hotel was built from a design of Puget; who, like Michael Angelo, was a sculptor, painter, and architect.

In the house, appropriated to the secondary school, there is a school for teaching the art of designing under the superintendance of M. Clairian: here we were shewn a beautiful antique tors

of a small Fauna, or rather a young Bacchus of Paros marble. This torse was found near Salon, and the vase on which it stands is of the same block.

In the square of the Preachers, opposite the church of Saint Magdalen, there is a fountain, surmounted by an obelisk, in a very beautiful style. On entering this church, we saw a singular picture, which is attributed to Albert Durer; though it is not mentioned in the list of his numerous works. But, whoever may be the artist, it is in the style of his time, and evidently belongs to the Flemish school. It is the figure of the great Eternal in a cloud; the Virgin is on her knees; in the ray enlightened by the divine breath, which proceeds from the mouth of the Most High, and enters into the ear of the chaste Mary, is a little infant, which penetrates by this organ. The angel, who announces the blessed effect of the creative spirit, is clothed in red, and furnished with two wings.

We were extremely anxious to obtain a copy of an Arabic inscription under the entrance to the house of M. Meiulan; the difficulty of the characters would have rendered, however, this process extremely tedious; and, notwithstanding the greatest care and patience, the transcript might, most probably, have proved inaccurate.

To obviate these difficulties, we had recourse to a typographical process. After washing the stone, and covering it with printer's ink, we applied over it wetted paper, which, on being withdrawn, bore a very distinct impression of the characters, which appear white on a black ground, when they have been hollowed out, and black on a white ground, when they are in relief. But as the letters are then reversed, they must be read backwards; on holding up the leaf, however, to the light, they are readily recognised in their proper position. In order to give to the letters the greatest degree of transparency, the paper which is employed, ought to be as little sized as possible. The stone can be afterwards freed from any remains of the ink, by washing it with a solution of pot-ash.

This process has been long known in Italy; but it would appear, that its application has been hitherto confined to taking impressions of inscriptions executed on bronze tables. Leibnitz saw, in the possession of M. Fabretti, a copy of the Fables of Eugubines, taken in this manner *; and he expresses, in his

* *Bernardi Baldi librum de Tabula Eugubina legi olim, notavique eum explicationes vocabulorum ex linguis orientalibus petere. Mihi placuerat ectypon Tabulæ qualem vidi apud D. Fabrettum, quod ipsa ex Tabula colore*

letters, a desire to obtain a similar one *.

M. Marcel, director of the imperial printing-press, when he accompanied the Emperor to Egypt, first thought of applying this process to the purpose of taking off inscriptions from stone; he obtained, in this way, a *fac simile* of the curious inscription of Rosetta, which has since been engraved and published. I also examined, at his house, many other inscriptions, taken in the same manner. It is evident, that this method possesses many advantages, since it can not only be performed with the greatest ease by a single individual; but since persons, the least versed in the science of inscriptions, may, by it, obtain copies with the greatest accuracy.

The monuments, which recal to our recollection the good King René, and his taste for the arts and for poetry, could not fail to excite our warmest interest. We accordingly proceeded to the church of the Augustines, which is at present shut up, in order to examine a bas-relief, executed by this monarch. Behind the great altar is a niche, in which is represented Jesus Christ, ascending to Mount Calvary, assisted by Saint Augustine, who wears a mitre, and holds a cross in his hand. The arms of King René are seen on the four corners of this sculpture. He composed the following verses, which he puts into the mouth of the Saviour:

Voyés l'angoisse et dure peine
Que pour vous autres gent humaine
J'endure très-cruellement;
Car sur moi n'y a nerf ne veine,
Qu'en portant cette croix greveine
N'excite douloureux tourment,
Quant allant haut
Je perds l'halleine,
Et le cœur me fault,
Tant est pleine
Ma chan las de murtrissement;
Ainsi m'en vais piteusement
Recevoir mort houteusement
Pour votre coulpe horde et vaine,

nigro infecta in charta applicata fuit expressum. *Nam quæ vidi, characteres non satis exprimunt.* LEIBNITII *Opera*, epist. XIII. ad calcem, tom. I, pag. 37.

* *Optarem impetrari posse ectypum Tabularum Eugubinarum. Tabulas scis esse æneas, quibus litteræ veteres, quæ* etruscæ *censentur, sunt insculptæ. Si quis amicus Eugubii favere vellet,* possent tabulæ colore aliquo infici, *et ita* uno ictu in charta exprimi: *talem ectypum illic obtinuit Fabrettus.* Ibid. epist. XII. tom. I. pag. 31.

Dont condamnés a damnement
Etiés perpetuellement,
Et est chose toute certaine,
Pourquoi te offir benignement
Que il faut mon mal pietamment
Si qu'ayés des cieulx le domaine.

Several tomb-stones are still to be seen in this church: the most remarkable of which is that of Hugues, who is styled in his epitaph *Bocherius*. This tomb was erected in 1514. In the middle of which appears the apparatus for slaughtering cattle.

The celebrated painting, executed by King René, which still more particularly attracts attention, was placed in the house of the archbishop: we spent a part of the day with this respectable prelate, who loaded us with numberless civilities and acts of kindness: and we had the pleasure of contemplating, at our leisure, this interesting monument.

Réne of Anjou, its author, beheld himself at once Duke of Anjou, of Lorraine, and of Bar, King of Naples, and Count of Provence. But these states having embroiled him in some vexatious quarrels, he would, doubtless, have been happier had he remained simply, Count of Provence. He did not possess sufficient energy to defend his title to these vast possessions, so distant from each other; so that, notwithstanding his eminent bravery and his military talents, he was compelled to yield up the throne of Naples. Though possessing great courage, he had not sufficient genius, nor a judgment sufficiently strong, to become a great monarch; but he merited, as well as John II. Lewis XII. and Henry IV. the name of Good. He partook, with this last Prince, the singular honour of having his name known and revered by the lower classes of his subjects: his memory has been cherished by the poor, and the *Provencals* always bestowed on him the appellation of the *Good King René*. Nevertheless, the wars in which he was engaged, often compelled him to impose on his people heavy taxes; his life was one uninterrupted series of misfortunes; but he was beneficent, popular, liberal, and just; qualities requisite to render him beloved by the people.

If René inherited not all the requisites necessary for a sovereign, he possessed the qualities of an honest man, the frankness and bravery of a loyal cavalier. How many individuals would he have rendered happy, had he been permitted to live peaceably in his little principality! His mind did not possess sufficient vigour nor energy to conquer events. Ambition held no sway over his heart. He was occupied in painting a partridge, when informed of the loss of the kingdom of Naples, and he

discontinued not his work. Retiring from the pomp of public life, for which he had no relish, he voluntarily delivered himself up to the charms of social intercourse; he cultivated the useful sciences, patronised industry, and protected agriculture; he delighted in the cultivation of flowers, and encouraged the culture of the mulberry tree; in the northern provinces of France, they are indebted to him for the introduction of the pink and rose of Provence, as well as for that of muscadel raisins. Frequently also, he amused his leisure hours by rearing curious and rare birds. He was well versed in a knowledge of the holy scriptures, and in theological works; he studied mathematics, and cultivated poetry and music; but the art of painting constituted his chief amusement and enjoyment. Many of these productions are still in a state of good preservation.

The dawn of the fine arts already began to enlighten Italy, during the 15th century, while other countries still remained buried in a state of the most profound barbarism. Most of the illustrious men, who flourished during the age of Laurence the Magnificent, and Leo X. were known towards the end of this century: it was only during the reign of Francis I. that painting began to make any progress in France. In Provence they possessed many advantages over their neighbours. The residence of the Popes at Avignon, attracted the most celebrated artists to this city, where the arts were cherished, and the darkness which surrounded them was gradually dispelled. The celebrated Giotto passed some time at Avignon, in the court of Clement V. who himself possessed some talents for painting. This art, however, did not make a very rapid progress under his auspices, since no work of great merit was produced about this time; but miniature painting was prosecuted with greater success than painting on a grand style; some manuscripts are still preserved in their library, ornamented with very pleasing vignettes. René practised, very commonly, this species of painting, as may be seen by the notices of his books, which have been preserved: there has also been attributed to him other pictures, which are executed in the style of the first Flemish artists, and painted in oil, which renders it probable that he had some connection with John of Bruges. Three works of this kind are particularly mentioned; the skeleton belonging to the Celestins, at Avignon; an *ecce homo* on canvass, in the house of the Observantins, at Marseilles; and the picture of the descendants of John of Matheron, which surpasses the two others, not only in its execution, but in the importance of the subject.

This painting decorates the grand altar of the great Carmes. The picture in the middle represents the *Burning Bush*. By an

anachronism, not uncommon during this period, Rene has not delineated Deity in the midst of the bush; but the Virgin Mary holding Jesus on her knees. The air of the Virgin is gracious and modest, but her little son is an incorrect design; he holds in his hand a mirror, which reflects his own image and that of his mother. The bush and the flowers are very well executed, but the flame fails in its effect, being scarcely perceivable. Under the bush, towards the left, we behold Moses, in the act of taking off his shoes, in compliance with the divine injunction, with one hand, while with the other he covers his face, because he cannot support the majesty of the divine presence: his air is indicative of surprise and attention. Before him is the figure of an angel, in conformity to the opinion of some commentators of scripture, who affirm, that God spoke to Moses in the burning bush, through the intervention of an angel; this messenger of God displays a noble and interesting air; his forehead is bound with a diadem, ornamented with pearls. He carries a golden sceptre in his right hand; his drapery is richly ornamented with jewels and precious stones, and is fastened with a cameo representing Adam and Eve, near the tree of life, round which is a serpent with a human head, like the *agatho dæmon* of the Alexandrians. Near the Hebrew legislator is a shepherd's dog, which is painted with much spirit and accuracy: it is represented as watching a flock of goats and sheep, which form a very pleasing groupe. The figures are placed in a landscape, illuminated by a setting sun, concealed by mountains represented in the horizon; a river, forming numerous sinuosities, waters this country, which is interspersed with various edifices of different sizes; one branch of it bathes the walls of a city, containing edifices and bridges in the Gothic style. The fore-ground appears studded with plants, one of which is eaten by a snail.

This picture is encased in a border, on which are represented the twelve Kings of Judah, seated underneath Gothic arches. In the angles are two figures; the one is kneeling, and presents a French horn; the other holds a lance, and is accompanied with a terrier-dog and two hares. In the other angle, a female sits near an unicorn, which she endeavours to protect from the pursuits of some hunters. This is, doubtless, a pious allegory. Above the border is a friez, divided into three parts; the two lateral ones are filled with angels, the greatest number of which are naked, and have their hands joined; others, apparently older, are clothed in a tunic; some of them wear a hood, and carry a sceptre in their hand; the younger groupes are covered with a [illegible], and armed with heavy armour and a buckler. This celestial army surrounds the Most High, who is placed in the

midst of them under the figure of a venerable old man, holding in his hand the globe, surmounted by a cross.

This picture is covered with shutters, which are not less interesting than the picture itself. That on the right represents King René, at an advanced age, and is more valuable, from being an accurate likeness; the eyes display much vivacity, and the whole countenance indicates the goodness and benevolence of his disposition. His long robe of violet-coloured velvet is trimmed with ermine, and his head is covered with a cap of black velvet, the brim of which is turned up. The Prince is not decorated with the Order of the Crescent, which he founded in 1448, probably because that institution only lasted twenty years, and was then suppressed. His prayer-book, ornamented with clasps, and his crown, are upon the carpet, which is before him; the King's escutcheon, quartered with the arms of Sicily, Arragon, Bar, and Lorraine, is embroidered upon this carpet; below is a spaniel, an animal to which the King must, doubtless, have been much attached, since it has obtained the honour of being placed by his side. Behind René are the three patron saints of Anjou and Provence. Mary Magdalen holds a vial, or an alabaster vase, filled with ointments, which she is in the act of pouring over the feet of the Saviour, during his repast with the Pharisees: the head is well executed: she appears covered with a veil, contrary to the custom of most artists, who always represent her with long flaxen hair. St. Anthony is near her, leaning upon a crutch, or rather upon a Grecian cross; under his mantle is perceivable the letter T, worn by the monks of St. Anthony: the face, which does not want expression, is rendered more venerable by a long beard. Before Saint Anthony is Saint Maurice, covered with rich armour; his helmet, surmounted by a plume of feathers, is ornamented with a cameo of Jesus Christ; the banner which he holds in his left hand is adorned with rods crossing each other, and terminating in flowers; his sword is richly ornamented; the head of Saint Anthony is reflected by the polished armour: over his cuirass the Saint wears a mantle of green silk.

On the inside of the shutter four figures are represented. Jane of Laval, second wife of René, is, like her husband, in the act of kneeling, with her hands joined, before a crucifix: this lady, whom he espoused in 1455, outlived the monarch, and died in 1498, without issue. Her features, which do not display much beauty, indicate her to be about the age of thirty; her hair is braided, fastened up under her crown, and adorned with precious stones; her long robe, or *cotte-hardie*, is of purple velvet; her *surcoat* is of white fur, edged with ermine, and

fastened in front by a chain of pearls and jewels. The arms of Montmorency and of Bretagne are embroidered upon the velvet carpet, which covers her praying-desk. A prayer-book lies open before her.

Of three figures that are seen standing, the first represents Saint John the Evangelist, holding his ordinary attribute, a chalice, in the hollow of which appears a winged serpent; from the top of the cup are reflected the fingers of the Saint. Hard by is Saint Catherine, whose head is decorated with a royal diadem. She carries in one hand the palm, symbolical of victory, and in the other the sword indicative of her martyrdom. She is habited in a pelisse of white fur, and a mantle fastened with two clasps. Saint Nicholas, Bishop of Myre, who is near her, with a mitre on his head, is clothed in a surplice and a hood of white damask, the broad welts of which are of flowered velvet; his hands are covered with white gloves, having a ring on almost every finger; while with the one hand he gives his benediction, in the other he carries a cross.

The outsides of the shutters are decorated with figures placed in niches. To the right of King René, we behold the angel Gabriel addressing the Virgin Mary, who receives the annunciation of the divine will with humility and modesty.

Such is the picture which has been uniformly and without contradiction, attributed to René; though it must be confessed, that there are neither initial letters nor any mark whatever to this effect; but it is evidently a production of his time, as well as the portraits with which the shutters are decorated; and there is no other artist of that day to whom they can be attributed with the least appearance of probability.

The archbishop had the goodness to shew us a prayer-book, which had been also illuminated by this Prince, who excelled in that kind of painting. Besides several beautiful prayer-books in the collections of individuals, they have preserved in the Imperial Library, that which was painted for Jane of Laval, his second wife; the letters R. S. are cyphered on all the pages with much elegance, and the margins are ornamented with devices relative to his two queens. That executed after the death of his first consort, Isabella of Lorraine, whom he tenderly loved, is a bow with the string broken, having the following motto: *Arco per lentare, piaga non sana.*

René of Anjou has also decorated with drawings another valuable work, the original of which, as well as several copies, are preserved in the Imperial Library. It is entitled, *Traité des gages de bataille*, or *Livre du Tournoi*. This work, which contains the most interesting account of these amusements, is also

composed by this Prince, and the miniatures which accompany it, represent all the ceremonies, and the details of the tournaments. They are composed with much taste, and the different figures evince great expression.

After dinner, we proceeded to the garden belonging to the Observatines, where we saw a beautiful Christian sarcophagus, which had been found in the city of Arles. The bas-reliefs, with which it is decorated, are in a very perfect state. They represent the Israelites going out of Egypt, and the Passage of the Red Sea.

Moses is distinguished from the other Jews by his garments; they are clothed in a long tunic, while their legislator wears a large mantle or toga, over a long tunic with sleeves.

Moses must have been about forty years of age when he left Egypt, and one hundred and twenty at his death; yet he is represented not only here, but in most of the Christian monuments, with a very youthful air, which is, perhaps, intended to characterise the power of the Almighty, who had miraculously preserved both his mind and body from the attacks of old age.

What I have related of the city of Aix, sufficiently attests the taste of its inhabitants for literature and the arts. This city has always been celebrated in the history of Provence. The nobility early felt the charm of study: the zeal that the Berengers evinced for poesy; the patronage they accorded to the Troubadours; the noble institutions that resulted from it; the residence of the Popes at Avignon; that of the Counts of Provence at Aix; the conquest of Naples, which produced frequent communications with Italy; the patronage of René; all contributed to inspire them with a taste for letters. The establishment of the parliament and of the university, tended still farther to improve and confirm it. Several members of the parliament of Aix have been distinguished by their learning and erudition. At their head was the great Peiresc, a character worthy of imitation. Their condition in life allowed them to pay great attention to the education of their children; and this noble example being very generally followed, learning was, by this means, disseminated throughout all classes of the citizens.

In Aix we found several valuable cabinets, well-stored libraries, and rich collections; these collections have been transmitted from father to son with the lands that he had cultivated, the castle in which he had been born, and the portraits of his ancestors, with which its walls were decorated. No other city, with an equal population as Aix, can boast of possessing more curiosities of nature and art, or of having given birth to a greater number

of enlightened men. It was the birth-place of Tournefort, of the celebrated Canonist Gilbert, &c. &c.

From the above representation, it must be evident that Aix has suffered more than any other city from the Revolution. The adjoining lands are dry and argillaceous; they produce very excellent wine and corn, yet not in sufficient abundance to answer the consumption. The crop of olives was, in general, sufficiently plentiful; but the severe winters of 1788 and 1789, having destroyed a great part of the trees, the produce of the oils, so justly celebrated, is now extremely reduced. The money formerly circulated in this city by the members of the parliament was another resource, which is now totally cut off.

Aix might still, however, perhaps recover some of its importance; if not by the learning, urbanity, and good taste of the inhabitants, at least by active industry, which would prove an honourable means of warding off its approaching impoverishment, if some remedy be not speedily applied. Several manufactures, which have been recently established, evince the truth of this observation. There is at present, in the neighbourhood, six thousand small spindles for spinning cotton. M. Taillapon employs seventy spinners; and Messrs. Arnaud manufacture flannels, cloths, and different kinds of stuffs, which are remarkable for the goodness of the texture, the uniformity of the mixtures, and the choice of the materials. M. Soulary is proprietor of a manufacture of silk and velvet. Doubtless, many other kinds of manufactures might prosper in this city, since the vicinity of Marseilles affords great facility for the disposal of their commodities.

Our intention was to make the tour of Upper and Lower Provence; our carriage, however, being found insufficient for this long excursion, we found ourselves compelled to leave it at Aix, and proceeded to Marseilles by the diligence. It set off at five in the morning, and the face of the country was covered with a thick fog.

Upon the right, at about a league from the town of Aix, lies Albertas, where there is a fine park, with walks, shaded with beautiful trees. Some pieces of water add to the coolness of this retreat, which is extremely agreeable; but the traces which still subsist here of the devastations committed during the Revolution, filled our minds with the most melancholy reflections.

We changed horses at Pin, which is nearly about half-way on the road; we perceived around us seven hills, from which, according to tradition, this place takes the name of Septème. We

afterwards travelled during half an hour, upon a height, termed La Vista, which is well worthy of the name it bears, as the prospect it presented to our view was truly delightful. The eye extended to the right over the Mediterranean; the sea formed a gulph, animated by an innumerable multitude of barks. It is particularly in the evening, that this picture is beheld in its greatest magnificence; and it was at this period that we contemplated it during our second journey to Marseilles, when the rays of the setting sun, majestically reflected from the surface of the water, gave it the appearance of being on fire. Before us stood the city, situated at the bottom of an amphitheatre of mountains, which forms a semi-circle; the surrounding country is covered with small houses and gardens, to the number of five thousand, so nearly approaching each other as to give the whole the appearance of a city, of which the largest houses are near to the port. It is here where the rich merchants, and even the shopkeepers spend the Saturday evening and Sunday with their families.

The dazzling glare of these habitations, which are white-washed all over, forms a striking contrast with the pale verdure of the olive and almond trees that surround them. There are a few mulberry trees; but those which afford timber are unfortunately scarce.

In descending La Vista, the perspective changes; the prospect being confined on each side by a continued wall which borders a range of fields. Such must have been the long walls, which Themistocles built to join Athens to the Piræus. This long ed road is very narrow; so that carriages find it sometimes difficult to pass each other.

We alighted at the gate of Aix to go through the city. This gateway is formed under a conduit, which incessantly distils drops of water; so that one must pass through without stopping. Here we see an entire new prospect, a wide and long street, which goes quite through the city; it has rows of trees in the middle, like the courts of Aix; it is said to be half a league in length to the gate of Rome, which we see at the extremity. As this street inclines gradually at the centre, like a bow, the whole of it may be seen at once.

We had scarcely entered the *hôtel des Ambassadeurs*, when M. Brack, director of the customs, came to offer his service, in a manner which I shall ever remember with esteem. M. Brack has travelled over all Europe; he speaks fluently the languages that are most in use; he sings with taste, plays almost on every instrument, and makes himself beloved by all who know him, for the pleasantness of his manner, which adds to the brilliancy

of his wit, and gives new charms to his talents: vigilant and just, he never makes a sacrifice of the duties of his situation to his love of pleasure and of the arts: he is useful to the government which employs him, and esteemed by those whom he commands. It was his advice that determined us to visit Upper and Lower Provence, before we made any stay at Marseilles, that we might be on the return at the epoch of the fair of Beaucaire.

M. Brack took us to dine at the country house of general Cervoni; which is very pleasantly situated, and surrounded by fine walks of chesnut trees. This general signalized himself in the army of Italy; and it was his courage that decided the victory at Lodi.

We returned at an early hour to Marseilles, to assist at the procession of St. Ferriol: that passes through the grand street, the sides of which are lined with several rows of seats, occupied by the ladies, all elegantly dressed. On the day of the *Fête-Dieu*, a procession of the Host, the noise of the cannon on the ramparts is mingled with the sound of ringing bells; the guns of the ships answer those on the land, and testify that all unite in the celebration of this solemnity.

Such ceremonies and processions were frequent at Athens, in Asia Minor, and in Greece; they are also frequent in Provence. Those of the *Fête-Dieu* are attended with great preparations and splendor. There is every day a procession, which is more or less followed, according to the extent of the parish, and the wealth of the people who inhabit it, and this lasts for the whole of the week. The most magnificent procession at Marseilles is that of St. Ferriol.

The streets are hung and strewed with flowers; the houses decorated with streamers to the very tops: and the public way is crossed by cords, on which are suspended numberless flags of various colours. Th ships are always dressed with flags and streamers.

The procession passes under several arches, hung with boughs, before it stops at the altars or resting-places, which are covered with flowers: every thing concurs to give to this solemnity an air of chearfulness not at all inconsistent with its object, which is to celebrate a festival in honour of the God of the universe. The eye dwells with a religious pleasure on the garlands of beautiful flowers, the green boughs, and the emblem of the divinity, contained in the flags of the procession. Although no longer preceded by the monastic bodies, the attendants are still very numerous; every gardener carries his wax taper, ornamented with the most rare and beautiful flowers; he has also the vege-

tables and fruits with which heaven had blessed his labour, and sometimes he bears some nests of birds.

The butchers also make a part of this procession, clothed with long tunics, and a hat *à la Henri IV.* armed with a hatchet or cleaver; they lead a fat ox dressed with garlands and ribbons, and with gilt horns, like the ox at the carnival: his back is covered with a carpet, on which sits a pretty child, dressed as St. John the Baptist. During the whole week, which precedes the festival, the butchers lead about this animal; they first take him to the police, where they pay a duty, and then their collection begins, which is very productive: every one wishes to have the animal in his house; and it is a prevailing superstition among the people, that they shall have good luck throughout the year if this beast leaves any trace of his visit, however dirty it may be. Those who love to involve themselves in the obscurities of antiquity, think that this custom is derived from the worship of the ox Apis, which was brought into Gaul at the time when the Romans, in imitation of their emperor Hadrian, gave themselves up to the Egyptian superstitions. M. Papon thinks, that it is the ox on which they sought to avert the evils which threatened the city; but it is received and caressed, and every one endeavours to attract it to his habitation. It is more probable, that each fraternity willing to exhibit at the solemnity whatever their industry had produced, that was most curious or rare, the butchers had a fancy to lead about a well-fatted ox, as the gardeners carried their earliest fruits.

It was, perhaps, an afterthought, to place on the ox the child of a butcher, and to dress him in the costume of St. John. The superstition of attracting it to their homes, arises naturally out of the respect connected with any thing that is supposed to be sacred: it is also to be recollected, that it is the animal which is dedicated to St. Luke. The ox is killed on the day after the festival. The child generally lives but a short time; exhausted by the fatigue which he has suffered, and the caresses which he has received, sickened by the sweetmeats with which he has been loaded, he languishes, and often falls a victim.

A number of young girls clothed in white, their heads covered with veils, adorned with flowers, and girded with ribbons of a uniform colour, are next in the procession; these are a choir of vestals, who follow these different representatives of nature, to offer praise to the Supreme Being. Children habited in different manners, recal the ancient games, called "Mysteries." Several young women are dressed as nuns; these are St. Ursula, St. Rosalia, St. Agnes, St. Teresa, &c. The handsomest are clothed as Magdalens; with their hair disheveled on their lovely

faces, they have been taught to look with an air of contrition on a crucifix, which they hold in the hand: others appear in the habit of those respectable maidens, who devote themselves to the service of the sick. The young boys fill other parts; such as angels, abbots, monks: among whom may be distinguished St. Francis, St. Bruno, St. Anthony, &c. In the midst of shepherds marches the little St. John, but half covered with a sheep's skin, like the picture of the precursor; he leads a lamb decked with ribbons, a symbol of the Saviour who offered himself for us, and died for the remission of our sins.

The streets are strewed with flowers; numerous choristers carry baskets full of roses and yellow broom, which they throw, on a given signal, before the host or holy sacrament: they strew some of these on the ladies who sit in rows to see the procession; these also have baskets of flowers on their knees, which they offer to the host; they amuse themselves with covering the young virgins and little saints with the flowers. The sweet scents of the roses, the cassia, the jessamine, the orange, and the tuberose, are mingled with the odour of the incense, as it were to ascend together to the throne of the Almighty.

The procession proceeds to the port, and it is there that the ceremony presents a sublime character: the people fill the quays; all the decks are manned with seamen, dressed in their best clothes, that is to say in their blue jackets, their heads uncovered, and their red caps in their hands. All bend the knee to the God of the Universe: the seamen stretch out their hands towards the prelate, who, placed under a canopy, gives the benediction: the most profound silence reigns among this immense croud. The benediction received, every one rises instantaneously; the bells begin to ring, the music plays, and the whole train takes the road to the temple from which they came.

The taste for processions is so universal, that this spectacle lasts the whole day, beginning at half past seven in the morning. As soon as it is over, the ladies quit their seats, and run to hear some musical entertainment; the men go to the orchestra to chat with the female performers, or to applaud the gambols of some favourite dancer.

Similar religious ceremonies take place throughout Provence; they only differ according to the circumstances and riches of the place; but they have every where the same character. We saw them repeated at Toulon, and at Hieres, although we were not there till the seventh and tenth of June.

CHAP. XXXII.

DEPARTURE FROM THE PORT—NÔTRE DAME—CHATEAU D'IF—PORT MIOU—LA CIOTAT—BANDOL—ROUTE BY LAND—CUGES—VALLIES OF OLIOULLES—OLIOULLES—GARDENS—COUNTRY SEATS—TOULON.

M. BRACK had the goodness to provide us a custom-house boat, and came himself at the break of day to conduct us on board. It was a little sloop, managed by four men. We sailed out of the Port, leaving to the left the fort of Nôtre-Dame de la Garde, so charmingly described by Bauchaumont, and to the right the terrific castle D'If, fortress and state prison. We coasted along shore, which we could not leave for fear of the English, who often sent vessels close in, when the tide allowed them to approach; but there are cannon placed at regular distances, and we kept under their protection. A dead calm would not allow us the use of our sail; three of the sailors rowed, accompanying the strokes of the oars with their songs, and the fourth acted as helmsman. Two small port-holes gave us the appearance, without the reality, of being formidable.

In about an hour we arrived off Port Miou, which is a creek. We found only one very narrow and shallow entrance, into which a merchant vessel of any size could hardly venture; but, as soon as we got in, we found that this creek formed an elbow, and the vessels are carried into a bay of some length, bordered on each side by pointed rocks. We entered this bay, and went to the end of it. It is difficult to imagine how so large a fissure could have been made in the chalky rock, without destroying that part which runs along the coast, and which appears like a wall, behind which the vessels are hid. Our mariners related on the subject of this creek, one of those stories so common among seafaring people. A Genoese captain, overtaken by a storm, being at a loss to find a shelter, was shewn this creek of Port Miou by his son, who also advised him to go in. The father was at first willing to follow his advice, and steered his vessel accordingly; but supposing it was going to be dashed to pieces on the rock which faced him, he was seized with terror, and in a passion struck

his son with an axe, and laid him dead at his feet. But scarcely was the blow given when the vessel, without touching the rock, turned of itself to the right and entered the bay, where it was sheltered from the tempest. The father was, too late, sensible of his error, and threw himself into the sea.

We did not land at Cassis, as we intended going thither at our return to Marseilles. We saw some Genoese boats, whose crews were employed in coral fishing. It was five o'clock when we doubled a small point called le Bec-de-l'Aigle (the Eagle's Beak), situated in a gulf, at the end of which is La Ciotat; we entered this gulf a short time after the schooner, charged with the protection of the small craft which coast along the shore.

We made no stay in this town, whither we intended returning with M. Thibaudeau, the prefect of the department.

The next day we landed on the coast of the ancient Taurentium, where M. Magloise-Olivier, the mayor of La Ciotat, had the goodness to accompany us. As our visit to this place was the object of the excursion planned with M. Thibaudeau, we soon re-embarked at the foot of the rock where the battery is placed, and rowed towards Bandol, having a dead calm all the way.

After doubling the point, which shuts the gulf of La Ciotat, we passed along a chain of steep and pointed rocks, against which the sea breaks with such violence that we sometimes thought we heard the noise of cannon. We landed at Bandol. This small port is the mart where the wines, the produce of the west of the department, are shipped for Marseilles and other places.

It was so calm that our sail was of no use. Cape Sicié, which we must have doubled, runs a great way out into the sea, and would have given us a long pull. We could not hope to arrive at Toulon before the gates were shut, and we must have passed the night alongside of the frigate, which guards the entrance; we therefore determined to go by land, and took such horses as we could find. Never was seen a more whimsical cavalcade: it consisted of a mule, two horses, and a mare, with each a shabby pack-saddle, and no stirrups.

The road from Bandol to Toulon is detestable, but the worst part is that towards Olioulles, the ground is rough, stony, and sterile. The vine is the principal production.

At Olioulles we took the great road to Marseilles; those who come by land pass by Aubagne and Cuges, and are soon in the department of Var. The road is through a narrow pass, surrounded by peaked mountains; the most celebrated of these valleys is called Les Vaux d'Oiloulles: this disagreeable pass, where the traveller is quite scorched by the reflected heat of

the sun, and where he is in danger of being drowned by the sudden descent of the waters, which in stormy weather rush in torrents, is also infested by robbers. These chalky declivities have not the least appearance of verdure; the road is very steep and has many windings; the naked rocks, inaccessible even to the wild goat, seem by their hanging positions to threaten the heads of the travellers, and often deprive them of the sight of the heavens. The ground is strewed with fragments of basaltic rocks, which evince the existence of ancient volcanoes. Every object concurs to augment the horror of the place, which might be taken for one of the entrances to the infernal regions.

When the traveller comes out of this passage, he soon leaves the rocks behind him, and views fields covered with the pine and the olive; and meadows enriched with the almond and the fig-tree; and although the place has still a wild appearance, it seems to be the boundary between Erebus and Elysium.

At the mouth of this valley, and the entrance of the beautiful and fertile plain where Toulon is situated, we first perceive *Olioulles*. The walls are built with fragments of basalt, which gives them a blackish appearance; but the country is delightful. We there see many of the villas or country houses of the inhabitants of Toulon, which are in proportion as numerous as those of the Marseillois; whilst the charming gardens, which meet the sight in every direction, with the delightful scents which perfume the air, give an idea of the mildness of the climate. Orange, lemon, citron, and date-trees, attain the greatest perfection in the open ground; the olive flourishes in abundance; and it is to the culture of these trees that the place owes its name. The oils which they produce are not of a very good quality; but they are very useful for the soap manufactories, of which there are several at Olioulles. The dried figs of this place are in much esteem.

In leaving the town the road is very stony, and fatiguing to travellers; but we were made amends by the chearfulness of the landscape by which we were surrounded. We presently came to a hill, from which we had the prospect of fields covered with caper-trees, the open sea, the roadstead of Toulon, with the city and its forts. It was six o'clock when we arrived, and alighted at the hôtel de Malte.

CHAP. XXXIII.

TOULON—ITS SITUATION—DOCK-YARD—HARBOUR—DAMAGE DONE BY THE ENGLISH—NEAPOLITAN DIVERS—WORKSHOPS—STORE-HOUSES—ARMOURY—MODEL ROOM—THE BAGNE—GALLEY-SLAVES—HABITATIONS—TREATMENT—LABOUR—PUNISHMENT—DESERTION—NECESSITY OF MELIORATING THEIR CONDITION.

THE valley in which Toulon is situated, is protected on the north side by lofty mountains; the east and west are sheltered by others, not so elevated: it widens towards the south, and forms a plain near three leagues in extent, in the centre of which is the city.

Toulon was many times ravaged by the Saracens; and centuries passed away before its advantageous situation was properly estimated. Louis the Twelfth was the first who discovered how many advantages might be derived from so secure an harbour, and from the finest roadstead in the Mediterranean: he caused a tower to be built at the entrance of the port, which was not finished till the reign of Francis the First. Henry the Fourth enclosed and fortified the city. But it was indebted to the genius of Louis the Fourteenth for the immense works, which are the admiration of the traveller.

It is peculiarly interesting to observe the active industry which reigns in this city, where are seen the colours flying of numerous ships destined to convey merchandizes of every kind to the most remote parts of the globe. Beyond the towers, and the chain which shuts the port, are seen those floating citadels which protect the roadstead, and are always ready, on the first signal, to pursue the daring foe who ventures too near.

The strokes of the hammer, the axe, and the crow, attract the attention to the spot where those immense machines are constructed, with which man pursues his enemy to the extremities of the ocean. The streets are thronged with people, actively busy from morning till night. The galley-slaves are continually passing, carrying great beams, cordage, shot, in short, every thing necessary to fit out the ships of war.

We had letters for Admiral Ganteaume; but the Emperor had appointed him to the command of the Brest fleet. M. Christy-Pallière, in the interim, filled the place of maritime prefect: he received us with the greatest politeness, and conducted us himself to view the dock-yard.

The gate at the entrance was erected in the year 1738. It is ornamented with detached Doric pillars, with bas-reliefs and marine trophies; and with two figures, Mars and Minerva; between them is a shield or escutcheon, with trophies and horns of plenty. At one of the extremities of the attic, is a winged genius clasping a bundle of laurels; and at the other, a genius holding a bundle of palms; there are also trophies of instruments, relative to the sciences. This gate is much admired.

The entrance to the dock-yard is constantly shut to keep out crowds of curious people, who would otherwise disturb the workmen; and among whom might be ill-disposed men, or accomplices of the galley-slaves, whose least culpable schemes would be to furnish means of escape.

When we had passed the gate, we observed the *Indomptable*, which was at that time repairing, and two men of war, and a frigate on the stocks; these labours are carried on with the most diligent activity; the shipwrights work night and day, and even on Sundays; the workmen sing their provincial songs, as an accompaniment to the noise of their tools; the galley-slaves, who are employed in the most laborious works, are distinguished by their costume; while their piercing cries are mingled with the horrible clanking of their chains.

The bason, constructed by the celebrated Grogniard, above all deserves particular attention.

When large ships were built, they were formerly launched by the same means as other vessels; but the danger attending on launching such enormous fabrics, was incalculable: this inconvenience has been remedied by the construction of a bason, into which the water of the sea is let in to meet the ship, and conducts it safe into the harbour.

They build or repair ships of the line in this dock; frigates and vessels of a less size are built on the stocks. When a ship is finished, it is conducted into the port, to get in her masts, to be rigged and manned, and to get her guns on board. The labours of the port correspond with those in the dock. At the point of the mole is the hulk, which serves to get in the masts. Here the slaves fill the casks for the use of the navy, with fresh water, others coil the cables; in another place the seamen are setting

up the rigging, and bending the sails. The hum of the bee-hive, and the active industry of the ant, are here brought to our recollection.

The English and Spaniards combined, possessed themselves of Toulon, in the year 1793, during the war at the time of the Revolution. The English, when they evacuated the port, burnt and sunk several ships; attempts have been made to raise whatever of them could be found; but there are still some carcases, which can only be raised piece-meal, by means of diving. Forty-four divers have been sent hither from Naples. They are paid five francs per day, besides half the value of whatever they bring up. Much of this is of little worth, because in many parts, the fire has made its way into the middle of the timbers; which proves, that it burnt for a considerable time under the water. But whatever is of metal may still be of use, and it is bought at a valuation made in the arsenal, or dock-yard.

The masts in the stores are very curious: we saw some which were composed of six trees, dove-tailed together, and bound with iron, by the galley-slaves. One of the largest masts was one hundred and ten feet in length, and between nine and ten in circumference.

In one work-shop forty slaves were employed in spinning hemp for the weavers, and for making of ropes and cables. The spindles are all put in motion by one wheel, and are so disposed, that each workman can stop his own without deranging the labours of his comrades. They can each spin a pound of hemp per day; and thus can earn from four to six *sous*.

The rope-walk is a vaulted room, three hundred and twenty toises in length. They first make a kind of packthread, which is tarred, after which they take the number necessary to make a strong rope; three of which make a hawser; and again, three of these make a cable.

Near the rope-walk is the sail-maker's work-shop, where they are always employed in making, sewing, and mending the sails.

The smith's shop gave us an idea of the cave of the Cyclops: here all the iron necessary for the shipping, is forged and worked, with the exception of the cannon, anchors, and coppers.

In the foundery the metal flows like the lava of a volcano; and here they cast cannon, and make the sheets to copper the bottoms of the ships, and the nails to fasten them.

In the cooperage they are perpetually occupied in shaping the staves; in placing them properly, and in hooping the casks. Farther on we see the smoking chimneys of the wash-house,

and feel the heat of the ovens of the bake-house; this establishment is separated from the others by a small canal; near this also are the store-houses for the corn and flour.

The joiner's shop exhibits labours no less varied; the numerous works which are there performed appear incredible. Humanity is affected at the sight of an abundant provision of wooden legs.

The work-shop of the carvers is close to that of the joiners: they carve here the ornaments which decorate the head and stern, and some parts of the interior of the ships.

After visiting the work-shops, we went to see the store-houses.

The general magazine for naval stores was burnt by the English; and now there is only a provisional one. As this is not sufficiently large, there are several others; but they all belong to the principal storehouse.

The arsenal contains the cannon, mortars, howitzers, swivels, &c. &c. There are here preserved several ancient pieces of a particular make, which were taken from the enemies of the country.

Behind the arsenal is the store-house for sail-cloth and ropes.

The small armoury is no longer what it was formerly; the English pillaged it; and the continual war which we have had since that time, has obliged us to make use of every thing; all has been employed for the defence of the country; nothing has been left for parade.

The model-room is one of the establishments of the dock-yard, which is most curious, and worthy of particular observation. It gives a perfect idea of the construction of line-of-battle and other ships. Some workmen belong particularly to this establishment. The model is here first made of every vessel that is built on any new plan. They also make models of those ships belonging to other nations, in which there has been observed any improvement.

M. Christy-Palliére expressed a reluctance to visit the *Bagne* (the place where the galley-slaves are confined); a soldier who had faced death in the field of battle, could not bear the sight of so much misery and wretchedness: we felt respect for a sentiment of humanity, so affecting and so noble. We also felt a share of the same reluctance to behold so disgusting a spectacle; but our curiosity got the better of our feelings; we therefore left M. Christy-Pallière; and his aid-de-camp had the politeness to accompany us.

It was the time when these poor wretches were leaving

work at the dinner-hour. Although the convicts have no other clothing than loose pantaloons and a woollen waistcoat, without pockets, and some of them are almost naked; yet they are made to pass every time through an iron gate, one by one; while two *argousins* (men appointed to watch and guard them), examine them from head to foot, and under the arms, to discover whether they have stolen any thing, or concealed about them any of the tools, by means of which they might attempt their escape. But, notwithstanding these precautions, they commit some thefts every day; they conceal, with great address, in the corners of the dock-yard, pieces of copper, or iron, which they have stolen; and with whatever care they may be watched, and although the workmen of the dock-yard are also searched as they go out, and no one is suffered to enter without permissions, which are very difficult to obtain; yet these convicts contrive to have communication with persons without, and to convey thither by some means, what they have stolen, for which they receive a share of the produce from their accomplices.

We had a particular permission to see the *Bagne*, and were accompanied by an Aid-de-camp, who introduced us to M. Bellanger, a commissioner of the navy, who had the charge of the police of the Bagnes, and who shewed us particular attention, and gave us every information that we could desire.

The galley-slaves are lodged either in large wards, built expressly for that purpose, which are called Bagnes, or on the old galleys, which have been covered with a roof; there are four others which are painted red, and which resemble wooden barracks. We went to see one of these galleys; it was filled with a company of convicts, who had been there but a week. Each of these companies are called *a chain*, because on the road hither they are all fastened to one chain, that none of them may escape, and that those who conduct them may guard them more conveniently.

These galleys could contain twelve hundred convicts: they are much cleaner than the bagnes, and enjoy a freer circulation of the air. Between the two ranges of beds or benches for the slaves, is a long passage; at the stern is the kitchen, and at the head are two rooms for the overseers; at the side of each bench is a small square window, and a balcony, secured by an iron railing, which goes all round the outside of the galley. All these convicts being so lately arrived, had their heads clean-shaved, their jackets of a bright red, and caps of the same colour, which they held in their hands, and their uniform appearance had a tolerable effect.

At the entrance of the galley the offensive odour is so very disgusting, that nothing but a strong curiosity could lead any one into such an unwholesome place.

When we entered it was their dinner time; and there was a great noise; but the arguosin, who was our conductor, whistled; at this sound, a terrible rattling of chains was heard for a moment, every one took his station, pulled off his cap, and there was immediately the most profound silence.

The convicts both sit and lie on the wooden benches, which resemble the beds of the *corps-de-garde;* they are allowed no more room than is sufficient for one man, and several of them are on the same bed or bench; and they are all fastened to one large ring, by a chain long enough to allow each of them to go from the bench to the post where the ring is fixed, near to which is the trough where every kind of filth is deposited, and where they throw the refuse of their sallads, roots, and other food. It is easy to conceive what deliterious and putrid steams must exhale, particularly during the night, from these unhappy men, whose pores are opened by perpetual and habitual labour, and whose dirtiness is without comparison, from these horrible troughs, which, notwithstanding they are emptied and cleaned as often as possible, are continually offensive.

These galley-slaves eat, drink, and sleep on the wooden beds or benches; in short, they pass all the time here which is not employed in actual labour, with no other covering than dirty rags. Their food, which is given them in wooden bowls, is as disgusting as their habitations: some little addition is made to their allowance by the trifling produce of their labour, or what they receive from their relatives.

At the time of labour they have only the chain which couples two together; it is fastened to the ancle of each by means of a large ring, which is riveted on; the chain is of sufficient length not to impede them in their work. The ring round the ancle weighs four pounds and a half, and the chain twenty-two pounds. They each carry a portion of it in walking, except when they are loaded with heavy burthens. Every part of their clothing is marked with the letters G A L; and the number of each is worn on a plate fastened to their cap.

The offences they commit during the time of their detention, are punished with great severity. Each argousin is armed with a strong cane; which is raised on the slightest murmur, or the smallest act of disobedience; and the blow always follows the menace. One shudders to see our fellow creatures used with so much rigour; but those who govern them pretend, that without this severity, these men would soon forget to fear them, and that

the most dangerous tumults might be the consequence. Nevertheless, it is probable, that notwithstanding the austere aspect which these terrible guards affect, that money secretly given them, succeeds in relaxing this extreme severity; and that, by these means, the galley-slaves obtain articles which are prohibited, and are able to infringe the regulations.

The blows given by the argousin are only for the faults of the moment; but more serious crimes receive a more severe punishment; those who are guilty remain for a longer or shorter time in the bagne, without being unchained from the post; others are condemned to carry a double ring and double chain; these punishments are usually preceded by a certain number of lashes, which are inflicted by some of their comrades, who are compelled to perform this cruel duty.

Notwithstanding every precaution, it is impossible to prevent or foresee every scheme that may occupy the mind of a man whose thoughts are always employed in finding some trick to shake off an oppressive yoke, and to recover his liberty: and as the important and pressing labours of the dock-yard occasion the convicts to be employed, who, in other times, would be totally confined to the bagne, some of them often find means of deserting.

As soon as the escape is discovered, a cannon gives notice of it, and a small flag is hoisted; the patroles go on the search through the country and on the roads. The deserters are often retaken; but they sometimes succeed in escaping their pursuers: but to attain this end, they must be assisted by some one in the city, who procures them an instantaneous asylum, and furnishes them with clothes for a disguise. It is astonishing how these men, without resources, without means, and without character, succeed in making acquaintance, and obtaining protectors in the city. Even in the bagne these men contrive to break the laws of society: they find means to commit forgeries of every kind. A short time before we saw them, there had been forged about three hundred discharges, so perfectly imitated, that even those whose signatures had been counterfeited, could not discover the deception. In the time of the assignats, the convicts imitated them to such perfection, that they often deceived those who were most observing.

If the humane Howard, who spent his life in mitigating the sufferings of mankind in hospitals and prisons, had visited the galleys, his feeling soul would have been agonized. But though it is impossible, even now, to withhold our pity, how much more should we have felt, when these horrible prisons enclosed men, whose crime was only that of killing a hare or a few par-

tridges, with others who had secretly brought in some casks of prohibited tobacco, or had passed a few pounds of salt from one province to another. It cannot be denied, but that the poachers were stealers of game; and the others were smugglers and defrauders of the duties, which are crimes certainly deserving of punishment, but not to be compared with robbing on the highway, or breaking into houses. Yet the punishment was similar.

At present, the bagne only contains abandoned wretches, more or less daring or hardened in wickedness and depravity; but, notwithstanding this fact, one must have lost every sentiment of humanity, to behold, without pity, men reduced to such a degree of abjection and misery. It would be possible, without any injury to society, to make some useful regulations to ameliorate the condition of these wretched beings: their crimes have given us the right of sequestrating them from society, but not to put them in a worse condition than the vilest criminals. Besides, the labours to which they are condemned, are already a kind of redemption of the crimes which they have committed; and both justice and humanity demand, that their habitation should be more wholesome, their provisions better, and their treatment not so severe.

I have detailed all that is most terrible in the galleys; let us now see what mitigation a proper conduct and repentance can obtain.

Formerly, there were some among the convicts, who were permitted to work in the city; this liberty now is not allowed. Those who are the greatest criminals, and those who are condemned to suffer the greatest number of years, never leave their prison; but those who, by their good conduct, endeavour to deserve the attention of the officers who are set over them, and whose time of confinement is almost expired, are employed either in the works, in the harbour, or dock-yard, in the service of the officers, or in attending the hospital. Those who are admitted into any of the workshops, such as the joiners, the smiths, &c. are allowed some payment, according to their work and talents.

There are some whose professions may be of use to themselves in the service of their comrades; such as the barbers, for example: others make small articles, which may be sold in the city. With these resources they procure some addition to their provisions: wine, which costs but a *sous* the pot, they are allowed to purchase, if they do not make an ill use of the permission; better covering for their beds, tobacco, sugar, and a number of other things, to make their situation more tolerable.

Among those whom the laws condemn to the galleys, there are some, whose offences are of a much lighter complexion than others. When we visited them, there was a general, who had given forged discharges to some conscripts; a hussar, whose life had been irreproachable till he had been prevailed on to erase from a discharge, the name of a soldier to whom it had been given, and who afterwards died, and to substitute the name of a young man, whose friends wished to get him from the military service; and a lieutenant of the navy, who was guilty of some neglect of orders from his superior officer. There were also men who were born in what is called the upper classes of society, whose polished manners attract more benevolence and attention; nevertheless, they are not much deserving of commisseration, because their birth and education ought to have kept them from the commission of such crimes: of this number was a commissioner, who had embezzled the money in his hands, and a secretary of the navy, guilty of forgery.

In the galleys are also some artists; there was an engraver, a violin player, a clock-maker, and a gold-smith; there were even poets and jesters, who enlivened the society.

Many of those who gain the attention or notice of the overseers, are delivered from their chains: but they must all, without exception, serve a fortnight or three weeks amongst the other convicts. Sometimes they are several months before they obtain more liberty, and then, in the day time, they only wear one fetter on the leg. They are unchained in the morning, and have the chains affixed again in the evening. Some, who are more particularly favoured, do the duties of servants, in the houses of the officers.

CHAP. XXXIV.

VISIT ABOARD A SHIP OF WAR—THE ENGLISH FLEET DESCRIED FROM CAPE CEPE'—VISIT TO FORT MALGUE—DINNER ABOARD THE BUCENTAURE—FOUNTAINS—FISH-MARKET—FIELD OF BATTLE—QUAYS—CARYATIDES OF PUGET—PORT MARCHAND—COMMERCE—MANUFACTURES—PRODUCTIONS OF THE COUNTRY—PUBLIC ESTABLISHMENTS—NATURAL HISTORY—BOTANICAL GARDEN—MINERALOGY—ENVIRONS OF TOULON—TOULONESE.

WE had viewed the port and the arsenal, but as yet could conceive no idea of the imperial marine, and the economy of a ship of war; on which account we were extremely anxious to visit the vessels then lying in the roads. We repaired to the country house of Vice-Admiral Latouche, situated near the harbour. I had known this brave officer at Paris, and besides was furnished with a letter of recommendation to him from General Christy-Pallière. He received us very politely, and engaged us to dine with him the following day, on board his vessel.

We accompanied him aboard the *Le Formidable*, commanded by Rear-Admiral Dumanoir, to whom I had also the honour of being known. We partook of ices and other refreshments with the officers, after which we were politely conducted to every part of the vessel worthy of examination. Though we had frequently seen very large merchant's ships, yet we had formed no conception of the magnitude and perfection of a ship of war, or of the discipline and regularity which prevailed among the crew: With what interest we viewed these brave and laborious men! An old pilot, in the act of teaching a little cabin-boy to read, exhibited so expressive and interesting a picture, that I longed much to have taken a sketch of them.

For some time past a small number of English vessels had

every day appeared before the harbour, apparently with the design of inducing our fleet to come out. They had frigates, however, stationed at different distances, ready to make signals to their fleet, so that if the Rear-Admiral had fallen into the snare, and gone in pursuit of these few vessels, he would soon have been attacked by the whole British squadron, which was greatly superior in numbers to his own.

While we remained on board, a pilot came to give notice of the approach of the enemy, on which we accompanied the Admiral to Cape Cepé, where he went, the better to reconnoitre them. Here we enjoyed a grand spectacle, in beholding, at once, the two hostile squadrons; that of the British, composed of five ships of the line, two frigates, and a great number of small vessels, lay without reach of the fort, while the French remained stationary in the great road.

We employed the next day in viewing fort *La Malgue*, at present termed fort *Jubert*, from the remains of the general of that name having been here deposited.

The Commandant, Lieutenant-Colonel Tonnain, obligingly shewed us every thing worthy of notice in this fort, which is at once intended to serve as a defence to the port, and as a military prison. In the neighbourhood they make a very good red wine, but heady, called wine of *La Malgue*. The soil of the mountain is composed of various coloured schistus. Near the shore the calcareous stones are pierced by the *pholas dactylus*, L. which are extremely common on the rocks; their flesh is tender and delicate.

Taking leave of the Commandant, we repaired on board the Admiral's vessel to dinner, during which we were entertained by a kind of mock fight. This spectacle gave rise to so many melancholy reflections, by recalling to mind the multiplied dangers to which so many brave men are exposed, that neither the gaiety of the Vice-Admiral, nor the hospitable reception we met with from his officers, could wholly dissipate them. Alas! these sad presentiments were too soon realized! Vice-Admiral Latouche, it is true, fell a sacrifice to a natural malady, a few months after; but the *Bucentaure* sunk, after having lost nearly the whole of her crew, during the terrible battle of Trafalgar. The Formidable, and her worthy commander, Rear-Admiral Dumanoir, were taken by the enemy; and, in short, there only now remains a very small number of those brave men who had created so much interest in our mind.

At six in the evening we returned ashore, in the Admiral's

boat, in order to be present at the exhibition of some fire works, in the *Jardin des Marrioniers*; which, however, was postponed on account of a very high wind.

Toulon is one of the handsomest cities in Provence. It is lighted by reverberating lamps; the streets are watered by eighty fountains, which are supplied with water from the neighbouring mountains. These waters gush out continually, and by their murmuring produce the most agreeable sensation. The large square is planted with rows of lime trees, which would form a most delightful walk, if it were not occupied by dealers in provisions and old clothes, and if the place of those which perished, had been supplied.

Not far distant stands the old episcopal palace, a very beautiful edifice. The fish market forms an oblong square; its roof is supported by ten columns of the Doric order. From this quarter, there is a road leading to the ancient city, the narrow and angular streets of which are also watered by fountains, though they are not more clean, on that account, since there is no sewer. Stagnant and putrid waters corrupt the air, and contaminate every thing in their vicinity. The exercising ground termed *Champ de Bataille*, where the soldiers perform their evolutions, is a large square. At the extremity of this place stands the hotel of the maritime prefect, built with more ostentation than taste; on both sides of the square are ranged handsome houses, while the fourth is formed of the walls of the arsenal. The inclosure is surrounded by double rows of poplars and various other trees. This square, the ramparts, and the quay, form the principal promenades of the city. Upon the quay is situated the Hotel de Ville, formerly the Hotel des Consuls, the balcony of which is supported by two caryatides, by Puget, and which excite the admiration of all foreigners.

The interior of the ancient cathedral is in the Gothic, while its front gates are in the modern style. This exhibits one of the incongruities at present too much in fashion. This gate is ornamented with columns of the Corinthian order; and would appear to great advantage, had it been erected in a different situation; but the discordant alliance of the Gothic and modern style can never be approved. In this church is a bas-relief, representing the Eternal Father, surrounded by a glory, executed by the pupils of Puget, after designs by their illustrious master.

Port Marchand has been excavated by the hand of man, and as all kind of filth is discharged into it, the city is by this means kept clean. It is smaller by one third than that of Marseilles; but its magnitude is sufficient for Toulon, the commerce

of which is confined to a coasting trade on the shores of France and Italy.

The price of land in the city is so exorbitant, as to render it inadmissible to build extensive magazines, and the safety of the place requires that they should not be erected without the walls. The Toulonese find a market for their commodities at Marseilles and Genoa; these chiefly consist of wine, oil, honey, capers, oranges, pomegranates, prunes, almonds, and dried raisins; in return for which they receive the products of the rest of France, Spain, Italy, and the North. The industry of the inhabitants is principally directed towards the Imperial marine, which furnishes them with sufficient employment.

Formerly a great quantity of soap was manufactured in Toulon and the neighbourhood. At one time there were no fewer than thirty-two soap-houses, which exported seventy-five thousand quintals; but this part of their commerce has for some time past gradually diminished; and, at present, they do not export above forty-five thousand quintals. The traffic carried on in capers and comfits is more important, as they annually dispose of about two thousand quintals of each. The fig and orange trees having been much injured during the winter of 1709, these fruits have never since attained to the same size as formerly. They manufacture coarse cloth, and a kind of woollen stuff called *pinchinat*. Hat manufactories were at one time very numerous; but this branch of business is now wholly given up. There are several distilleries, some tanneries, &c. and a considerable starch manufactory.

The wines of Provence are chiefly used in the distilleries. Formerly there was a director, or superintendent, placed by government over these works; an office, which has been suppressed since the revolution. The spirits are of an inferior quality, and this branch of commerce is considerably on the decline.

Those establishments, appropriated to public instruction at Toulon, are the Lyceum, the Marine School, and the Naval Medical School.

The benevolent institutions consist of the Civil Hospitals, and the Grand Military Hospital.

The population of this city varies considerably; in general it is estimated at twenty-six thousand inhabitants.

We enjoyed a superb and delightful spectacle on ascending the tower of the principal church, which commands a view of the shore, the road, the ports, the dock-yards, and the arsenal, where we beheld a vast multitude of men, all displaying the greatest activity.

An abode at Toulon proves extremely agreeable. Those who are anxious to gain instruction in maritime affairs, will here find their curiosity amply gratified. The promontories, the sea-shore, the neighbouring hills, and indeed the whole of the environs afford the most charming walks, where the mind may deliver itself up to the influence of soothing reflections. The naturalist may here also find important objects of contemplation in the fish, the shells, the insects, and in the curious fossils which abound in the calcareous mountains; while the botanist may enrich his herbarium with various interesting indigenous plants, as well as with many elegant and curious exotics. A great number of these foreign specimens are successfully cultivated in private gardens, but chiefly in the botanical gardens, under the direction of M. Martin. In fact, the environs of Toulon, which are extremely picturesque every where, exhibit scenes of gaiety and active industry.

CHAP. XXXV.

IMPERIAL MARINE—DEPARTURE FOR HYERES—PORT-MARCHAND OF TOULON—HARBOUR—CAPE CEPE LAZARETTO—THE SABLETTES—FORT BALAGUAY—FORT VIGNETTES—THE TWO BROTHERS, &c.—QUARQUERANE—PLAIN OF HYERES—HYERES—GARDENS OF M. FILLE AND M. BEAUREGARD—NOTRE DAME OF ASSUMPTION—TOULONESE PEASANTS—CAPEAU MARSHES—SALT-PITS—ISLES OF HYERES, &c.

THOUGH the view of a large sea-port presents ideas which elevate the soul, and console us for the weakness of humanity, yet the mind naturally reverts, in spite of itself, to the most melancholy reflections, on beholding the instruments of death, and the means of destruction, with which we are surrounded. Our imagination soon wandered towards a more tranquil district, a more fortunate shore, towards those new Hesperides, which furnishes to Gaul the tribute of their orangeries.

We had a letter from our friend M. Brack to M. Hains, director of the custom-house at Toulon, who readily provided us with a small bark to convey us to Nice. His son had the

goodness to make the necessary preparation for our little excursion; and on the 10th of June, the sailors came to conduct us aboard. It was about half after four in the morning when we set sail; the weather was fine, but it blew a fresh wind, and the sea was a little agitated.

The port is of a circular form; and at its entrance stands the tower, built by Henry IV.; a chain is thrown across as a security. To the right is the delightful village of Seyne, forming an amphitheatre with the sea-shore. Several white flags, placed before the houses, floated gracefully in the wind; and among these delightful habitations we noticed that of Admiral Latouche, where he usually passes the day, but returns to sleep on board his vessel.

The entrance of the road is closed by Cape Cepé, where a watch tower is erected; and at the foot of which stands the Lazaretto. Since the introduction of the plague in 1721, the Toulonese have been extremely vigilant in enforcing the quarantine laws.

Cape Cepé is joined to the land by a very narrow tongue, termed the Sablettes. In working out of the small harbour, we observed two rocks, which touch each other; on which account, the sailors term them the Two Brothers. The entrance to the harbour is defended by Fort Balaguay and that of Vignettes, formerly Fort Saint Louis.

Leaving Cape Sicié to the left, we coasted along the shore near to the rocks, termed by the sailors *Escambebariou*, when the wind began to blow so impetuously, that is was impossible to keep the sea in our small bark, and we landed at Quarquerane; carrying ashore with us the provisions we had brought from Toulon, on which we breakfasted, under the shade of some fig-trees, at the foot of a mountain, termed the *Montagne des Oiseaux*, or *Montagne de Quarqueiane*, which is delightfully situated, and rises about 200 toises above the level of the sea.

We vainly waited for a calm, for the sea became more and more agitated, till we at length adopted the resolution of pursuing our way on foot to Hyeres, where we had ordered our carriage to meet us the next morning; nor had we any cause to repent our excursion, since nothing can be more delightful than the road we travelled, and the surrounding landscape, which is every where ornamented with olive and fig-trees. We crossed a beautiful valley, watered by a rivulet, which forms a great many falls from the points of the rocks over which it runs, and which are clothed with some species of laurel, *Laurus nobilis*, and *Nerion oleander*; on the left is an eminence, termed by the peasants the *Colline noire*, and a small but uncommonly fertile valley, appropriately named *le Paradis*.

The plain of Hyeres next appeared in sight, covered with palm trees; the road which runs through it is very agreeable, and shaded by olive and fig-trees, while several rivulets fertilize the adjoining fields. The palm trees, which we perceived at a distance, pointed out to us the site of the city of Hyéres, which is built, in the form of an amphitheatre, on the declivity of a mountain, that defends the whole plain, which stretches to the sea, from the influence of the north wind. The summit of the mountain is bare, and cleft in several places, so as to give it the appearance, when viewed from a distance, of a fort intended to protect the city; which, on the whole, has rather a disagreeable aspect, owing to the streets being straight, gloomy, and steep. There were formerly a great number of convents in the city.

Towards the base of the mountain are situated the most modern houses, the principal street, the square, and the inns where those strangers stop, who are attracted to Hyéres by the mildness of the climate; and in this direction there is also several celebrated gardens, the most beautiful of which is that belonging to M. Fille. Except in this lower part they have ceased to build, and the ancient town will soon be completely deserted. From thence, as far as the plain, which borders the sea, the declivity of the hill, though gentle, is yet sufficient to shelter the orange trees from the influence of the north wind, and to facilitate the frequent irrigation necessary for their growth and support.

We next visited the gardens of M. Fille, and those of M. Beauregard, which are contiguous to the former. Though less celebrated, and containing fewer orange trees, they are, however, more extensive, and abound with a greater variety of fruits, which, during unfavourable seasons, make up to the proprietor for the failure of his orange crop. They likewise raise in the adjoining fields a considerable quantity of leguminous and other vegetables. It was affirmed to us, that in 1793, the crop of artichokes alone sold for eighteen hundred franks. There were some time ago, in this garden, a beautiful male and female palm-tree, the latter of which produced excellent dates. But the male palm having perished, the other has ever since remained barren. In general, the rare trees and flowers are planted near to the houses, while the rest of the garden is exclusively devoted to the more productive culture of oranges.

It is affirmed, that, excepting the gardens of Messrs. Fille and Beauregard, there is no place at Hyeres well adapted for the culture of these trees. This is obviously a mistake; for there are many other spots sheltered from the north, where they

might vegetate and prove equally productive. A deficiency of water alone seems to be the true cause why other individuals have not attempted to form similar establishments. There is only a single spring, which the proprietors of these gardens have the exclusive right of diverting during some days every week, to fill the reservoirs, by which their plantations are watered.

We first began to perceive the orange tree at Olioulles; but it never attains to a great height, and the cold frequently destroys it; nor can it be raised on the plains of Toulon. It thrives tolerably well between Hyeres and Frejus, beyond the Esterel; but the oranges of Hyeres acquire greater perfection than the former.

We are ignorant of the period when oranges first began to be cultivated in Provence. This tree appears to be indigenous in Persia, between Persepolis and Carmana; from thence it appears to have been propagated into Pontus, afterwards into Greece, Italy, and the southern provinces of France.

We ascended the tower of an ancient convent, called Saint-Clair, to survey the territory of Hyeres: from thence we beheld its rich plain, about four leagues in length by one in breadth, and the orange gardens, which extend along the walls of the city. To the right we perceived the mountain of Notre-Dame, and further on, the vast lake of Giens; in front the small river Gapeau, which intersects the whole district, and near which are the salt-pits; and beyond them the gulph of Hyeres, and the isles of the same name.

The climate is unhealthy from May to October; but during the remainder of the year the air is pure and salubrious. The bread and water, with which Hyeres is supplied, are of a good quality. Good wine may also be had here; fish, game, and poultry, are also to be procured in great abundance. The environs exhibit rich and enchanting scenery; while every thing at Hyeres contributes to render an abode therein agreeable and delightful.

Hyeres has been the birth place of many illustrious characters; among whom we may rank P. Raynard, who rejected a bishoprick, and the celebrated Massillon.

We had heard much of a painting representing the twelve apostles, and of a bas-relief, by Puget, which decorates the chapel of Notre-Dame d'Hyeres. This chapel is erected on a hill, near the borders of the sea, about a league distant from the city. It is no longer used as a place of public worship, but is occupied by a hermit, who has taken up his abode in it as an expiation for his immoderate passion for high play; and who has probably found in this mummery, a resource against the losses he has sustained. The prospect from this mountain is

extremely magnificent and extensive; Hyeres appears in the form of an amphitheatre. On the other side of the mountain rises that of Perriere, in the grottos of which may be seen many curious stalactitic incrustations.

A Toulonese peasant, going from Quarquerane to Hyeres, had agreed to carry our portmanteaus; but he did not fulfil his engagement. The Provençal peasants are in general little worthy of trust; those in the vicinity of Toulon are particularly crafty and deceitful. If you enquire the way to any place, they will either not answer, or endeavour to mislead you. If in travelling you stand in need of any assistance, they will laugh; if you are in danger, they will continue their route. If a traveller, parched by thirst, should pull a grape, he may esteem himself fortunate if this slight indiscretion do not draw on him a cudgelling, or induce the proprietor to fire upon him. Their cries resemble those of a tyger; their vivacity is rage. Their quarrels are often productive of serious consequences; for they frequently retaliate upon each other by giving a blow with a stick, a stone, or a thrust with a knife; which often proves fatal. He who committed the crime, on becoming calm, reflects not on the atrocity of the action, but on the consequences to be apprehended from it. He abandons his victim, whom he might have assisted, and often dispatches him, in order to avoid detection. His resolution is soon taken; he flies, and posted in some secret hiding place, darts upon the unwary traveller, whom he plunders, and frequently even assassinates. Such is the conduct of the banditti, who somtimes infest the roads of Provence.

The citizens of Hyeres are characterized by mildness and affability in their manners. As this city derives much of its wealth from the abode of foreigners of all ranks, its inhabitants feel themselves interested in rendering their stay there as agreeable as possible; in a word, they are as mild as the climate under which they live. The population is reckoned at seven thousand souls.

The *Anguille* had anchored in the road of Hyeres; on learning which, we departed to join her. In our way thither, we crossed the plains of Hyeres; which, towards the land, is completely surrounded by high mountains, with the exception of a narrow pass towards the north, whence runs the road to Toulon. This plain is intersected by the Gapeau. It is most fertile on the right bank of this river. The neighbouring mountains display a great variety of forms; several of them are absolutely naked, while others are clothed with oaks, and different kinds of trees. The interior parts of this plain are cul-

tivated, but the land is very pebbly; it is in general planted in alternate patches or belts of wheat and vines; the olive trees thrive here astonishingly. As we approached nearer to the sea, the land became more marshy; a circumstance which renders this district unhealthy during summer, and gives rise to epidemic diseases. It is probable that the plain of Hyéres has formerly been a gulph, and been gradually filled up by the falling down of matters from the neighbouring mountains. The Gapeau has its source in the territory of Signe, and near to its mouth are situated some salt-pits. They are formed of a square space of about a league in circumference, enclosed by a fence, and divided into several smaller squares, also surrounded by ditches and canals, by which they introduce the sea water, leaving it to evaporate by the heat of the sun. When the operation has been several times repeated, the salt is carried to the magazines, situated near the shore, and adjoining to which are the habitations of the workmen. The produce of these salt-pits is estimated at five hundred thousand franks, and the value of the establishment is said to be daily augmenting.

On reaching our vessel, we learned that the enemy's cruizers had picked up some fishing vessels and other small ships near the coast, which determined us to relinquish our original intention of visiting the Isles of Hyéres, situated about four leagues distant from the shore; and to which the inhabitants of Hyeres frequently go on parties of pleasure.

These isles form a beautiful groupe, which are discovered at four or five miles distance out at sea. After viewing this part of the coast, we returned to Hyéres, where our sailors waited for the signal from the watch-tower, that the enemy had left the coast, in order to put to sea and proceed to Saint-Tropez.

CHAP XXXVI.

DEPARTURE FROM HYERES---MOUNTAIN OF AVERNE—MINERALS—PLANTS—CASTLE OF LA MOLLE—THE MAURES—CASTLE OF FRAINET—THE SARACENS IN PROVENCE—COGOLIN---HERACLEA---SAINT TROPEZ—COMMERCE---FISHERY.

THERE being no direct road between Hyéres and Nice, those who wish to visit the latter city must return to Toulon,

and afterwards pursue their route from Frejus, by Cuers and Pignans. From Hyéres to Saint Tropez there is no road fit for carriages; we were, therefore, obliged to provide ourselves with horses and a guide; and on the 12th June set out on our journey at two o'clock in the morning.

From Toulon we travelled along the coast as far as Frejus.

This road, which is bordered by a pomegranate hedge, is, at first, intersected by several smaller paths. The soil is extremely fertile, producing corn and vines in abundance. To the right we beheld the salt-pits, and beyond them the sea, from the bosom of which emerge the islands of which I have already spoken. In a short time we reached the mountainous chain, which forms the amphitheatre of the plain of Hyéres. That which we traversed is denominated the mountain of Averne. The scenery is, in many places, picturesque, and from the substances, of which this mountain is composed, it must prove interesting in a mineralogical point of view. The quartz, which forms the base of the soil, has been acted on in several places, by the torrents, which have formed in it numberless furrows and fissures, of different degrees of depth and breadth. Here the road loses its terrific aspect, and assumes the appearance of a foot-path, winding in various directions. Somewhat farther on, the nature of the soil changes, and abounds in curious and interesting minerals; with the help of a hammer we broke several of them, and filled a basket with the fragments: they were mostly varieties of granite, porphyry, and quartz; with this last, shining mica is intermingled in such profusion, as to impart to it the appearance of gold or silver, especially when it reflects the rays of the setting sun.

One of the representatives of the people, unacquainted with mineralogy, having traversed this mountain, in 1793, was anxious to collect this beautiful sand, and transmitted it to the Convention, as a proof of the ignorance of the administrators of the department of the Var, who trampled under foot, he asserted, treasures sufficient to defray the expences of a war against all the potentates of the earth, and who were ignorant of its value.

The sinuosities formed by the torrents, which in taking different directions, produce variations in the ground, the plants with which the soil is covered, still farther augments the singularity of this country, where not a single hut can be seen. We were almost led to suppose ourselves transported into a desert waste, far from the haunts of men and civilized society. We amused ourselves by collecting several southern plants for our herbarium. It always conveys to the mind a pleasing sensation,

to behold the plants we have gathered upon a soil where they grow spontaneously: they recal to mind the situations where we found them, the places we have traversed, the friends whom we have left behind; it affords a source of the most agreeable and endearing recollections; even if they do not augment our knowledge, they excite in the mind an interest greater than those which have been transplanted into gardens for our amusement and instruction. The plants of Provence are well known by the great work of Garidel, and by the excellent Flora of M. Gerard. It is in these mountains, in those of the Esterel and of la Victoire, that these two indefatigable botanists have reaped a most abundant harvest. It is to be lamented, that the first had adopted an alphebetical arrangement, and that the other had digested his Flora before Linnæus, whose method he followed, had introduced trivial names, which so greatly assist the memory, and thereby facilitate the acquisition of botanical science. It would be desirable that some intelligent botanist, availing himself of the labours of these two learned men, might favour us with a *Flora* of Provence.

As natural history was not the principal object of our travels, we did not stop in these places a sufficient length of time to mark all the different objects worthy of investigation: we were forced to content ourselves with what fell in our way, and with procuring specimens of such minerals, plants, and insects, as belonged more particularly to the south of France.

We observed, in the progress of our journey, with much regret, that a great quantity of beautiful pines had been destroyed by fire. Many of them were lying on the ground entirely stript of their branches, and with their trunks blackened with the smoke. In many other places we beheld traces of similar conflagrations; there are few spots on which pines grow, exempt from similar devastations. I have before mentioned the causes to which are attributable these disgraceful conflagrations, and the means best adapted to prevent them. The intermixture of these blackened pines, steep and rugged rocks, ravines and deep furrows, caused by the torrents, all conspired to suggest to the mind some ideas of what the poets tell us of the descent into the infernal abodes.

We discovered, in several places, many varieties of oak, such as *quercus ilex*, green oak; *quercus rotundifolia*, round leaved oak, the acorns of which, when boiled and roasted, are eaten by the peasants; *quercus robur*, common oak; *quercus pedunculata*, pedunculated oak; the wood of which, being harder and more compact, resist more powerfully, the influence of the water, and which the ancients employed in building. The

species most common in these mountains, is the *quercus suber*, or cork-oak; it was at that period when they strip it of its bark. This bark is removed every eight or ten years, without the tree suffering any injury. It is covered with stones, in order to flatten it, after fire having been applied to both its surfaces; it is then transported to Saint-Tropez, where it is formed into corks.

Innumerable shrubs, unknown to the inhabitants of the northern departments, exhibit an agreeable variety. The *arbutus* grows there in profusion, the whole ground being covered with it. *Juniperus communis*, or common juniper, is likewise very frequent. Among many other shrubs which presented themselves during our journey, we distinguished the *artemisia abrotonum*, southernwood, the *myrtus communis*, common myrtle, the white blossoms of which afford an agreeable contrast with the yellow flowers of the *jasminum fruticans*, or jessamine.

While descending into some depths, rendered almost impassable during the rainy season; while climbing some hills, whence we could enjoy the enchanting spectacle of the sea at a distance, we descried three English vessels at the point of the Isle of Levant and of the harbour of Hyeres; they were in pursuit of several small vessels, when they were fired on by the battery, which rendered us anxious for the safety of our own bark.

We stopped at the ancient castle of *La Molle*, which belongs to M. de Fons-Colombe. A peasant procured us some plates, and we dined upon the provisions we had brought with us, near a fountain, shaded by mulberry trees.

Before resuming our route, we traversed the environs, and procured an ample collection of minerals.

After refreshing ourselves and horses, we again proceeded by a road somewhat similar, as far as Cogolin, the houses of which are chiefly built with a kind of serpentine, found in the mountains.

A mineralogist, instead of repairing directly to Saint-Tropez, should take the road to the left, which is by far the most interesting (in a mineralogical point of view), and go as far as La Garde-Frainet; whence he should proceed to Draguignan. We saw, in the museum of this city, specimens of the different minerals, common in the vicinity. These mountains likewise contain a large bed of serpentine, sometimes of a grey, and sometimes of a blackish colour, with amianthus adhering to it. The mountain, on which stands the castle of Frainet, and those which surround it, are chiefly composed of gneiss.

This chain of mountains, which we explored, and which stretches from Hyeres as far as Frejus, where it is divided from

the Esterel by the river Argent, is called the Maures, doubtless, from the great number of Saracens who dwelt upon its borders. After having subjugated Spain, they made incursions into Languedoc and Provence, during the year 721. Those who were driven out of Languedoc by the Dukes of Aquitaine, entered Provence in 729, where they committed dreadful devastations. After forming a junction, they advanced in great force as far as Poitiers, where they were routed and cut to pieces by Charles Martel in 732: he also overthrew them in Provence, and expelled them from the country. They afterwards, however, made several descents upon the coast in 737, by means of small vessels, and committed dreadful ravages. It was then that they pillaged the monastery of Lérins, after having massacred the monks. The Danes, called Normans, destroyed what they had spared. At the same period was effected the destruction of several Roman cities in Provence, and particularly of Heraclea and Olbia. The Saracens re-entered Provence in 888, and put every thing to fire and sword; while the Normans devastated the north of France. They destroyed Aix and Marseilles; took possession of the gulph of Saint-Tropez, and occupied the circumjacent country. It was at this epoch, that they built the Castle of Frainet, or Fraxinet, probably so called, on account of the vast number of ash-trees, with which the neighbouring territory abounded. They kept possession of this strong fortress till 932, when William I. Count of Provence, expelled them from it. He was powerfully aided, in this glorious enterprise, by several brave knights; of these, one of the most renowned, was Bevon, or Bobon, son of the Seigneur de Noyers, near Sisteron. This knight retired into Italy, where he lived in voluntary poverty; and in which country he was honoured as a saint. The Saracens never again returned. At Fraxinet are still to be seen a great deep fosse, and a capacious cistern, both hewn out of the solid rock.

Before arriving at Cogolin, where black kidney-beans are much cultivated, we discovered Roquebrune, the territory of which is fertilized by the alluvial matter deposited by the Argent, during its inundations, and the *château de Grimaud*, in which was born the unfortunate Madame d'Entrecasteaux, so inhumanly assassinated by her husband. At Cogolin we left the mountainous region, and proceeded through a plain, which is extremely fertile, and yields abundant crops of corn. The soil becomes sterile on approaching the gulph, the direction of which, we pursued as far as the point where the city of Saint Tropez is situated.

This city is built upon the site of the ancient Heraclea; per-

haps so called, because it possessed a temple of Hercules. It was sacked and destroyed by the Saracens; and, notwithstanding the protection offered by the Counts of Provence to those who should there establish themselves, no one ventured to inhabit it. At last, sixty Genoese families, under the conduct of Gaffarel de Garessio, settled there in 1470, on condition that they should be exempt from all taxes. At that period there were only two towns which served to defend the country, and which still exist. There the Genoese built a city, which they denominated Tropez, from the name of a Saint, who suffered martyrdom at Pisa; the relics of whom they transported to their new residence.

The port is formed by a mole thrown across the gulph, which the ancients termed *Sinus Sambracitanus*, and which is now called the Gulph of Grimaud, from the name of the great seneschal of Provence, Jean de Cassa, Baron of Grimaud, who concluded the treaty with the Genoese.

The territory around Saint Tropez is very unproductive: but the air is so pure and salubrious, that the plague never raged there, though it was epidemic in the adjacent country. At this place they build trading-vessels, some of which are afterwards taken up for transports. Prior to the Revolution, they had established some silk manufactories. The construction of vessels, the exportation of wood, and the manufacture of corks, now constitute the chief employment of the inhabitants of this city. They have also recently attempted the process of making salt. The wine is of a bad quality.

Fish forms a considerable source of trade. As there was nothing worthy of examination in the city, M. Sisterne, inspector of the customs, to whom M. Brack had favoured us with letters of introduction, and from whom we received a polite reception, proposed that we should take a view of their mode of fishing, and had the goodness to accompany us in his small bark, on board of which we embarked, at day-break, in order to proceed to Frejus. The chief object of this fishery is the tunny, or *Scomber thynnus*, *L.* but they likewise take a great many other fish, as turbot, soles, thorn-backs, &c. Considerable numbers of the former are sent fresh to different places for sale, while the remainder is salted, in order to preserve them, and afterwards put into oil. When they are washed and pressed for sale, the oil which is obtained from them, is used by tanners.

CHAP. XXXVII.

GULPH OF GRIMAUD—SAINT MAXIME—THE YASSAMBRES—SAINT RAFFAU—FORUM JULII—FREJUS—HISTORY—ANCIENT PORT—LAKES—CHURCH OF SAINT STEPHEN—PHAROS—PORTE DOREE—WALLS—MAGAZINES—AQUEDUCTS—CIRCUS—PANTHEON—INSALUBRITY OF THE CLIMATE—FEVERS—ANCHOVY FISHERY—CANES, ANTIQUITIES, &c.

AFTER having observed the various operations of the fishery, we took leave of M. Sisterne, and crossed the gulph of Grimaud, which is upwards of three leagues in circumference. This passage usually occupies a quarter of an hour.

From the middle of the gulph we beheld some ancient towers, which served as a defence against the Saracens, and the works which were added to them in 1592, by the Duke d'Epernon, to convert them into a citadel: its form is very irregular; it has three bastions in front; defends a part of the gulph, and overlooks the city of Saint-Tropez.

At the other extremity of the entrance into the gulph is Saint-Maxime: the soil is arid and sandy: here they cultivate the cane, which they fabricate into weavers' reeds. Behind this village are mountains wholly covered with forests.

At the bottom of the gulph lies Grimaud, the plain of which is inundated every winter by the overflowing of the torrents, which cross it. Several small lakes are here to be seen, known in this country by the name of *garonnes*. Some of these collections of water are kept up by constant springs; but some others are partially dried up during the summer, and exhale pestilential miasmata. It would be of great benefit were they wholly filled up.

On leaving the gulph, we descried an English vessel; on which we kept close in shore. In a short time, however, we became, in our turn, an object of alarm to a small tartan coming from Frejus, who, as soon as she perceived us, caused her own boat to tow her ashore; nor were her fears wholly void of

foundation, as the English privateers frequently send in armed boats to capture the small craft, which dare not venture to a distance from the coast. It was, on this account, that we at first made the point of Yassimbres, as recommended to us by M. Sisteme, in order to learn if the gulph of Frejus was clear of the enemy. A few days before, a vessel had been chased into this gulph by a privateer.

After having doubled the point of Yassimbres, we had to the left the gulph of Frejus. To the right, is a small rock, called *La Griffe du Lion*, on account of its form, and, at the opposite extremity of the gulph is the point of Ogny, near to which the town of Saint Raphael, or Saint Rafeau, as it is termed by the inhabitants. The vines, which grow in this district, yield excellent white wine. Frejus forms an amphitheatre at the bottom of the gulph. We shewed our bill of health, and obtained entrance into the port, or rather the anchorage of Saint-Rafeau. We repaired on foot to Frejus, by crossing the sandy plain, which was formerly the port.

The reapers were already occupied in cutting down the barley, and the other grain was nearly ready for the sickle; the harvest had also begun in the plains of Napoul and of Frejus. From the situation of these places, the corn there arrives much sooner at a state of maturity than in the other cantons.

Frejus enjoys some reputation, on account of its antiquities. It is also classic ground. Cæsar aggrandized and embellished this city, which was the capital of the *Oxibii*, on which account, it is called *Forum Julii*, from whence is derived the modern name of *Frejuls*, now pronounced Frejus. Augustus finished the port that Cæsar had begun, and he placed in this a colony of soldiers of the eighth legion, which procured it the surname of *Colonia Octavianorum*. This port must have been of great extent, since Augustus sent to it three hundred vessels that he had taken from Anthony at the battle of Actium. The fleet which the Emperor kept here, served to defend the whole Mediterranean coast as far as Marseilles. That city likewise served them for an arsenal, wherefore Pliny bestowed on it the name of *Classica*.

When the Saracens pillaged the isles of Lérins, they also ravaged these coasts, and it is probably from that epoch, that we may date the decline and fall of this once opulent city. Small vessels could still enter its ports in the eighth century. The inhabitants in despair, ceased to exert themselves against the encroachments, occasioned by a torrent, called the Argent. In a few years the sand, slime, and mud, had so much accumulated, and filled up this celebrated port, that the place

where the vessels formerly cast anchor, as the iron rings, which are found, sufficiently attest, is now about half a league distant from the sea.

These depositions have formed lakes, where the accumulated sand and other matters exhale noxious miasmata, which prove extremely deleterious to the country about Frejus, above which clouds frequently hover and destroy the harvests. Hence the extent and population of this city have greatly diminished: its circumference, which was formerly five thousand paces, is now much reduced. The river Argent, which runs east of this city, was known by the Romans under the name of *Flumen Argenteum*.

Lepidus encamped upon its banks, in order to dispute the passage of Anthony; but, instead of opposing, he joined his forces with that general's against the Senate. It is affirmed, that this river derives its name from the silver, which is washed down by its stream. P. Hardouin ascribes this name to the translucency of its waters. It seems probable, that the portions of mica found intermingled with the sand washed down, induced the belief that silver existed therein.

The ruins every where discoverable on the road leading to the city, attest its pristine splendour and importance; but on entering it, we found the streets nearly deserted, and the houses, for the most part, uninhabited. The sickly and livid complexions of those whom we met, their cadaverous visages, and sunken eyes, almost induced us to suppose ourselves within the precincts of an hospital.

Though we took up our abode at the best inn the place afforded, we yet found it extremely dirty and disgusting. Every where we observed the most horrible filthiness; putrid water was served up in dirty vessels; swarms of flies settled on the viands, which they season with rancid oil: wasps and spiders, from the adjoining marshes, continually tormented us during the day with their painful stings; and during the night we were not less harassed by other insects, equally teazing, and still more disgusting: however, those habituated to them, might regard such animals with indifference; to us they allowed no repose, and we were induced to consider them as the greatest of all possible calamities.

We lamented that the ardent curiosity which had inspired us with the desire of visiting places so celebrated in the annals of history and antiquities, should have led us into this abode of wretchedness; on which account, we were anxious to leave it as soon as possible. We knew that M. Raymond de Cépède was engaged in a work, respecting the monuments of his country;

we therefore addressed ourselves to this gentleman, who politely favoured us with his company on this occasion.

We first visited the church, dedicated to St. Stephen; at one side of the entrance is the baptistery, a small circular edifice, supported by eight columns of hard black granite, with Corinthian capitals of white marble. It is supposed to have been a temple; and in the truth of this opinion, we are inclined to acquiesce, since no facts tend to invalidate it. We observed a christian sarcophagus, ornamented with three subjects sculptured in relief, among which we recognised the figures of our first parents. We also beheld a square piece of marble, the inscription on which, had been renewed, with much care. The place of the characters, as well as their length and depth, could be distinguished; but we found it utterly impossible to decypher the letters. We likewise noticed an ancient altar, but without any inscription.

There exist in this church only two tolerable paintings; one of them exhibits a characteristic trait, related by the author of the Life of Saint Francis de Paule. Having learned, on landing, that the plague was devastating the city of Frejus, he removed it by the efficacy of his prayers; and the inhabitants ascribed its subsequent exemption from this scourge to his intercession with the Deity. The front of the altar represents the same Saint crossing the strait of Messina upon his mantle.

The respectable curè vaunted much of a statue, which had been carefully preserved in the sacristy; but which we found, on inspection, to be nothing more than a little figure of painted and varnished wood, representing a child, habited in a white shirt. There is still to be seen in this church, the statue of Barthelemi Camelin, bishop of Frejus, in 1394, who was regarded as the restorer of order and discipline in his diocese.

M. Raymond politely accompanied us in our examination of the Roman antiquities in the vicinity of the city. Toward the west, we beheld the remains of a square tower, supposed to have been a Pharos. Hard by are the traces of some buildings, the uses of which still remain unknown; and farther on a tower. In pursuing the direction of the old quay, on our return to the city, along an ancient wall, we reached a kind of mole, flanked by four towers; which appears to have been constructed, in order to protect vessels against the wind termed *mistral*.

Following the same route, we arrived at *Porte Dorée* a name which, the inhabitants informed us, had been bestowed on it, because in some parts of the building, nails with gilt heads had been discovered. In fact, we ourselves saw a few of these nails, which had been despoiled of their heads; but whether they

were really gilt, remains yet to be ascertained. This building is composed of bricks, or of the same species of serpentine employed at Saint-Tropez. The courses of these stones and brick alternate with each other, in the same manner as is observable in most Roman monuments.

In the wall of a house, behind *Porte Dorée*, we beheld a Doric capital, as well as a mutilated marble head, placed on another wall of the same house, the vaults of which contain the remains of an aqueduct.

After dinner we again commenced our researches; and descended, by the help of a ladder, into a vault, which M. Fauchet, then prefect of the Var, had ordered to be cleared out. It seems to have been employed as a reservoir for water, and is formed of arched galleries, three of which extend in length, and four in breadth. It resembles that of Lyons. The plaster, with which the walls are covered, is of a singular composition. The first coating consists of a rough plaster, over which is spread a second, containing a great quantity of pulverised charcoal; and a third layer of mortar covers the whole. Were the ancients acquainted with the property possessed by charcoal, of preserving water? If so, we must suppose them to have hit by chance on that which modern chemists discovered by their own genius.

A little farther on, M. Raymond pointed out to us the remains of a vaulted magazine, the walls of which were covered with mastic, like the reservoir above-mentioned. A part of the door by which we entered, still exists.

Hard by the gate *de la Clide*, near the ground, are to be seen the vestiges of an ancient circus. It is of an elliptical form, and the inclosure is in a tolerable state of preservation; but the seats have been destroyed. The arena is very unequal, having been elevated in several places by rubbish. At the upper part of the building, the remains of a cornice are still visible. One of the stones, of which it is composed, is penetrated by a hole, extending through one half of its substance; these perforated stones appear to have served the same purposes as those of the theatre at Orange, to support rods, to which were attached awnings, intended to shelter the spectators from the heat of the sun. The frieze had been decorated with sculptures, as far as we could form a judgment, from a fragment there found, and upon which we beheld a garland, &c.

About five hundred paces farther on, in a place called Villeneuve, stands a tower, with very thick walls, and in which we beheld some small niches, probably intended for the reception of urns. At one time, it appears to have served as a *columbu-*

rium, dove house. This edifice is known under the name of Pantheon.

There are still to be seen the remains of an extensive aqueduct, constructed by the Romans, for the purpose of conveying water from Siugne. Its ruins strikingly attest the genius and magnificence of that celebrated nation. These masters of the world, having discovered the advantages resulting to them from the mildness of the climate, and the favourable situation of Frejus, adopted the resolution of there forming an extensive establishment. By them a mole was built, to afford shelter to the port; spacious magazines were erected for storing provisions, and a vast aqueduct was constructed for conducting fresh water, and large reservoirs for collecting, and supplying ships with it. But the inhabitants of this place, otherwise so favoured by nature, have allowed these magnificent works to fall into decay. It would have been easy to repair the aqueducts built by the Romans; but this has never been attempted; in consequence of which neglect, more have fallen victims, within the space of ten years, to the insalubrity of the place, and want of water, than would have been necessary to reconstruct them. It should indeed seem, that the inhabitants of Frejus expect the miraculous interposition of Providence in their favour, since they employ no means to counteract the destructive influence of those causes, with which they are constantly assailed. In addition to the bad weather, the atmosphere is charged with pestiferous miasmata, exhaled from the adjoining marshes; especially in the month of August, when pestilential fevers rage with the greatest violence. It is during this period, that those who are in easy circumstances, retire to their country houses. Throughout this month nothing is heard but the knell of the funeral bell. Seven or eight persons daily fall victims to this malignant distemper. It is computed, that nearly four hundred are carried off by it. A young domestic of our host, lost, in one day, his grandmother, mother, and aunt.

The figs, which they collect in abundance, at this period, are reckoned one of the principal causes of this fever. Flesh-meat is also regarded as an unwholesome article of diet; while fish is considered as the best. This district, so insalubrious, is yet reckoned one of the most fertile in Provence. The citron, orange, pomegranate, and fig-trees, all bear fruit in abundance, and indeed every other species of fruit trees thrive equally well. The aloes, which grows upon the sides of highways, sufficiently attest the genial mildness of the climate. The territory environing the city, is a fertile plain, extending from west to south, and bounded by a chain of mountains, terminating at the sea shore. To the east-

ward also, rise some high mountains. All kinds of vegetables are raised in the environs, and wood is abundant.

From the indolence of its inhabitants, a stranger might be tempted to suppose, that the commerce of Frejus was far from being active. The articles they export consist of the wine and fruits of the country. They possess some distilleries, and several extensive potteries for the manufacture of common earthern ware. The anchovy fishery in the gulph is very productive. It commences toward the latter end of spring, or at the beginning of summer. The fishers carry with them chafing dishes, in which they kindle clear fires with the chips of resinous wood. On the anchovies approaching them, they extinguish them, and beat the water, upon which the fish, wishing to escape, immediately retire, and are caught in the nets, with which they are surrounded. The anchovies are eaten fresh; but the greater part is salted. For this purpose, after removing the head and entrails, they salt the fish, and put them into barrels, with alternate lairs of salt and fennel. It is an opinion among the fishermen of Provence, that red salt answers best; and on this account they colour it with ochreous earths. An aperture is left in the cask, in order thereby, to introduce fresh brine in proportion as the former drains off. Canes or reeds constitute a considerable branch of the commerce of Frejus and Saint Tropez; the inhabitants in each of which, yearly dispose of them to the amount of from forty to fifty thousand livres. These reeds, the insalubrious marshes of Frejus furnish in great abundance, and to this productive source is perhaps attributable the frequent visitation of pestilential maladies. They collect them towards the month of December, when they are sufficiently hardened, and arrange them according to their different sizes. From the various purposes to which reeds are applicable, it might, perhaps, be useful to naturalize them in the south, as well as in other parts of France, but whether such an attempt would succeed, has not yet been fully ascertained.

Among the monuments discovered at Frejus, are, a statue affirmed to be that of Venus Urania, which was sent to Paris in 1650, and a marble bust of Janus, which the chapter made a present of to Cardinal Fleury. In the cabinet of antiquities, in the imperial library at Paris, is preserved the tripod, on which the celebrated Peiresc has written a dissertation.

There was found, in the territory of Arcs, in the environs of the bridge, of which Lepidus speaks, in his letter to Cicero, a range of earthern vases, containing some ashes; as also a medallion of baked earth, representing a genius trampling on a lion.

On excavating the ground, M. Fauchet found a cylinder of amber, about three inches in length, and of a spiral form.

Frejus has been the birth place of many celebrated men; among whom may be reckoned Cornelius Gallus, a poet and general, who commanded in Egypt under Augustus, and was condemned to death for treason; Julius Græcinus, who was the author of some agricultural works, which obtained the praise of Pliny and the approbation of Columella; Julius Agricola, whose virtue and moderation, his relation, Tacitus, has eulogised; and Valerius Paulinus, the friend of Vespasian.

CHAP XXXVIII.

ROMAN WAY—THE ESTERELL—THE FAIRY OF ESTERELLE—BRIGANDS—BURNING OF FORESTS—THE NAPOULE—CANNES—BOSTERA—ISLE OF SAINT MARGUERITE—STATE PRISONERS—ISLE OF SAINT HONORATUS—MADEMOISELLE SAINTVAL—ANTIBES—THE INFANT DANCER, SEPTENTRIO—AQUEDUCT—COSTUME—FISHES.

AT Frejus we spent two days; which, notwithstanding the delightful situation of the city, appeared to us insufferably tedious; and we anxiously longed to take our departure from it. The mountains and the forest of the Esterelle appeared to us too interesting to be passed by without notice. It was, therefore, agreed that we should meet our sailors at Cannes; and we set out on horseback to visit them.

We again passed by the aqueduct, before mentioned, and the remains of a Roman way. We crossed the valley of Frejus, and soon reached the mountain, from which issued a pure and limpid stream. The Israelites felt not happier, when the rock opened, on being struck by the rod of Moses, than we did, parched up as we were, with thirst, on the present occasion.

According to a tradition, prevalent in the country, this mountain was formerly the abode of a fairy, called Esterelle; from whom its appellation is derived. From the records of S. Armentaire, it appears, they offered her sacrifices, and that she presented their barren women with drinks, to render them prolific.

This mountain exhibits a still more picturesque appearance. and displays a greater variety of enchanting scenery than those of Maures. He who delights in admiring the various productions of nature, will here find himself amply gratified. The road was every where covered with myrtles, jessamines, arbutuses, &c. and various curious plants, the names of which I do not at present recollect. The soil was partly composed of a greenish serpentine, somewhat similar to that found in the mountains of Maures.

After pursuing our journey for about four hours, we reached the inn of Esterelle; where is established a military post, composed of gens-d'armes and chasseurs. This detachment, which is relieved every month, serves to escort the mail, and occasionally travellers, who remunerate them for their trouble. The woods, with which these mountains are invested, the depths into which we must descend, and from which it is impossible to emerge, but by narrow defiles, and the thinly scattered habitations, all tend to induce the belief of our wandering in a desert. These gloomy wilds had been long infested by banditti, who either singly, or in conjunction, frequently plundered, and sometimes even assassinated, unwary travellers. They had murdered, we were informed, in the space of a year, not less than eleven persons belonging to one family. Several inhabitants knew their persons, but feared to denounce them, lest they should become their victims, or be immolated by their survivors. Some even entered into terms with these wretches, and agreed to pay them a certain sum, that they might travel with impunity. The gens-d'armes, conducted by some peasants, went in pursuit of them; destroyed a great number of the gang, and surprised their chief. He made, however, a vigorous resistance; and, though desperately wounded, he, nevertheless, endeavoured to effect his escape; but was at last found expiring at the foot of a tree, against which he had supported himself. A price was set upon the heads of those who survived. When we passed, only two of these banditti survived. They had retired to the frontiers of Italy; but, as an accurate description of their persons had been obtained, hopes were entertained that they would soon be captured. One of the most sanguinary of these ruffians, as if to outrage nature, morality, and religion, had assumed the name of Jesus.

Nothing can be more varied or picturesque, than the passage across these mountains. Standing at a considerable height, we beheld around us hills less elevated, and small cultivated plains; we could also trace with our eye, the course of the tortuous path which it was necessary for us to pursue. The magnificent prospect before us, as well as the diversity of the plants, all

concurred to augment the pleasure we experienced in these delightful solitudes.

Here the base of the soil is a porphyritic rock, of the colour of wine lees. We there remarked a few transparent crystals, intermixed with feld-spath, of which we collected several interesting specimens.

The scene changes every instant in these mountains; but the traveller is continually grieved, at beholding the spectacle of half burnt forests. These conflagrations are occasioned by the keepers and proprietors of flocks, who set fire to the bushes and trees, in order that the burnt vegetable matter may fertilize the soil, and improve the pasturage. But whole cantons are sometimes also wilfully set on fire by individuals interested in obtaining the lands at a low rate. To prevent these disorders, some severe regulations have been enacted; but they have not fully answered the intention.

Towards eleven o'clock, we arrived at the bridge of Saint Jean, and halted for a short time, under a tree. The road was so rocky that the horses could scarcely proceed. A little farther on, we crossed a rivulet; after which it became smooth and ran along a plain; in some places it is formed by placing trunks of trees crosswise, and covering them with earth and gravel. In the forests of Swabia and Bavaria, roads are frequently repaired in this manner, as well as in Norway and Russia.

At this place we came in sight of the gulph of Cannes, and the city to which it gives the name. It is situated on the left bank of the gulph, exactly opposite to Napoule, which stands on the right.*

On our approach to Cannes, we found some granites. We had scarcely entered the city when our bark arrived. Although this town is well built, it afforded nothing sufficiently interesting to detain us a moment; and we, therefore, immediately repaired on horseback, to the promontory fronting the Isle of Marguerite. This coast is almost wholly covered with a very curious marine production, *Zostera marina*, L. which grows in

* This territory, which is uncommonly fertile, is still more unhealthy than that of Frejus. Its insalubrity is, indeed, so great, that according to a popular saying, *even the chickens there take the fever*. The people employed in the custom-house are obliged to be changed every six months; and the Inspector lives at Saint Tropez, whence he proceeds in a bark, when his presence is necessary. They here cultivate oranges for the sake of the flowers, which they sell in great abundance to the perfumers at Grasse and Nice.

great abundance every where along the shores of the Mediterranean. This vegetable, eaten with salt, affords a very excellent sallad.

The isle of Marguerite, which is separated only from the main land, by a very narrow strait, was termed, by the ancients, Lero, from the name of a divinity, who had a temple erected on the spot, where at present stands the chapel dedicated to Saint Marguerite. The fort, which answers the purpose of a state prison, has been celebrated in history, from the *man in the iron mask* having been some time confined within its walls. We had the curiosity to visit the chamber said to have been occupied by this mysterious prisoner. It has only one casement, towards the north, guarded by strong bars. The soldiers of the garrison, and those employed in different offices within the prison, are the only inhabitants of this isle. At the time we visited it, there were three state prisoners in the fort. One of them enjoyed considerable liberty. He had fitted up for himself a detached building, in a very commodious manner. He was permitted to enjoy the diversion of hunting and fishing, was indulged with the society of his children, and a few friends; and even permitted, sometimes, to entertain the inhabitants of Cannes and its environs. He was besides, susceptible of those enjoyments worthy of a dignified soul. Anxious to leave behind him some memorials of his having occupied this Isle, he laboured to render it more agreeable to any unfortunate beings who might hereafter be condemned to inhabit it. With this view, he formed walks, and, at a great expence, sunk a well, where the existence of a spring was suspected. His fortune, elegant manners, and cultivated mind, gave him the air of a sovereign of this little Isle; and we might have mistaken, for the captain of his guard, the Commandant, a brave honest veteran, who had passed most of his life in camps, and engaged in military exercises.

A very narrow canal separates this Isle from another, still smaller, which the ancients denominated Lerina; and which possesses the advantage of having a well of very excellent fresh water, from which Marguerite is supplied with this necessary article. This spring is supposed to have been miraculously discovered by Saint Honoratus, as the following inscription, placed above it, attests:

> *Isacidum ductor lymphas medicavit amaras,*
> *Et virgæ fontes extudit è silice.*
> *Aspice ut hic rigido surgant e marmore rivi,*
> *Et salsa dulcis gurgite vena fluat.*
> *Pulsat Honoratus rupem, laticesque redundant,*
> *Et sudis et virgæ Mosis adaquat opus.*
> [illegible]

The retreat of the austere Saint Honoratus, has undergone a wonderful metamorphoses, and, at present, belongs to Mademoiselle Sainval, the elder, so justly celebrated on the French stage. The soil of this Isle appears to be fertile, and, on the whole, it presents a very agreeable aspect towards the sea. A telegraph has been lately erected, which repeats the signals made from the watch-tower of Antibes and the promontory of Agay. In the evening we embarked, in the hope of reaching Antibes before night, and were favoured with a letter to the Governor of that city from the Commandant of Marguerite. But, on entering the port, we could not find a messenger to carry our letter to the Governor, and, consequently, could not gain admittance into the city till the morning, and were, therefore, obliged to pass the night on the quay, wrapt up in our cloaks.

At five in the morning, we entered the city of Antibes, which was termed Antiboul by the Provençals, a name evidently derived from that of Antipolis, which it bears in ancient authors, and in medallions. It was founded by the Marseillois, but afterwards withdrawn from their dominion. The Romans granted to it the rights of a Latin city.

Pirates and Saracens have frequently plundered and laid waste this city. Clement VII. after having obtained possession of it in 1384, under the pretext of keeping it under subjection to him, sold it to Messrs. de Grimaldi, of Genoa, who ceded it, in 1608, to Henry IV. It was besieged, in 1746 by the troops of Maria Theresa, but the arrival of the Marechal de Belle-Isle, made the Austrians repass the Var.

Antibes is a small and ill built city, but its port has a very elegant appearance: it recals to our recollection that of Ostia, the figure of which has been preserved in the medals of Nero, which was surrounded by porticoes. It is of a round form, provided with a quay, and a range of circular arcades. We enjoyed a very extensive prospect from the rampart.

M. Jeanbon had the politeness to accompany us in our pere-

grinations, and lent us a manuscript history of the antiquities of Antibes, by Jean D'Avazry, which proved extremely useful to us in our researches.

The most curious monument is that of the young Septentrio. The inscription is singular; it is incased in the wall, at the corner of the street which leads to the church; and runs thus:

D. M.
PVERI SEPTENTRI
ONIS ANNOR XII QVI
ANTIPOLI IN THEATRO
BIDVO SALTAVIT ET PLA
CVIT.

To the memory of the infant Septentrio, aged XII. who danced twice at the theatre of Antibes, with the greatest applause.

It is probable, that this youth, perhaps, fatigued by the exertions he had made to merit the suffrages of the Antipolitans, during these two days, had died in their city, and that the inhabitants intended by this epitaph to record the regret they experienced at his loss, and the approbation with which they beheld his talents.

This city had formerly two acqueducts; that which brought the waters of Biot still exists: it has been much injured by the weather, but was repaired in 1786, for the space of two thousand five hundred toises, and it at present supplies three fountains with water.

The heights above Antibes afford a most magnificent prospect; the eye wanders over the city, the port, the fortifications, the gulph, and the coast, which is prolonged in the form of a semi-circle; we perceive hills covered with houses, in the midst of which stands the city of Nice; and in the back ground rises the vast mountains of the maritime Alps, crowned with snow during the greatest part of the year.

The females wear a singular kind of head-dress, or straw hat, in the form of a truncated cone, resembling a Chinese bonnet, which equally protect them from the sun and the rain.

We returned very much fatigued with our excursion; but the excellent cheer provided by our host. M. Ballice, very soon made us forget our toils. He dresses the different kinds of fish, with which the coast abounds, in such a superior style, that

parties frequently go from Cannes and Nice to dine at his house.

The fish caught on the shores of Antibes are highly esteemed. The Sardinians (*clupea sprattus*, L.) are reckoned extremely delicious, though, in our opinion, not equal to those taken on the coast of Bretagne. This fish, which takes its name from the island of Sardinia, is eaten either fresh, smoaked, dried, or preserved in the manner of anchovies. There is also found on this coast the *mullus ruber*, Lacép. so highly valued by the Romans, that they bartered for them their weight of gold; as well as the *mullus surmuletus*, Lacép. for which the Greek and Roman epicures displayed an equal avidity. These fishes are sometimes taken in the Ocean, but they are neither so abundant nor so delicate as those in the Mediterranean, and especially on the coasts of Provence, which also teems with a great variety of other excellent fish.

After passing two days at Antibes, we again embarked, and were soon landed at Nice.

CHAP. XXXIX.

NICE — HISTORY — SITUATION — STREETS — HOUSES — CHURCHES — MARKETS — PLACE VICTOR — PLACE IMPERIALE — FORT MONTALBAN — MOLE — PORT-CASTLE — ARIS — PUBLIC LIBRARY — CHURCH OF SAINT-ETIENNE — CONVENT OF SAINT-BARTHELEMY — ALOES — PALM-TREES — CIMIEZ — SAINT-PONS — CEMENELION — AMPHITHEATRE — CHURCH OF NOTRE-DAME — INSCRIPTIONS.

AT three o'clock we left the port of Antibes, and at six entered that of Nice.

The city of Nice is situated on the beautiful amphitheatre which was seen by us on leaving Antibes. It is of a triangular form; on the west it is bounded by a high mountain; on the north and east by the Paillon; and on the south it is washed by the sea.

The streets are narrow, and the height of the houses, which are kept extremely dirty, renders them sombrous and gloomy. Some of those lately built on the sea-shore have a very handsome appearance; but the greatest number of them is furnished with no other chimney but that in the kitchen: when the weather is cold they place a brazier in their chambers to warm

them. They neither display arrangement nor taste in the disposition of their furniture; the use of porcelain is unknown among them; they drink their coffee and chocolate out of Delft cups, and the most necessary utensils are of a rude and inconvenient form.

The churches of Nice display nothing remarkable in their appearance; the principal one, called *Saint-Reparate*, is of very common architecture.

The butcher-market, which is very spacious and supported by pillars, is situated on the Paillon, which facilitates the conveying away of all impurities.

The bakehouses and shambles are farmed on account of the city, and the revenue hence arising is appropriated to defray the expences of the municipality.

At the extremity of the ancient city is the gate on the side of Piedmont, and the *Place Napoleon*, formerly called *Place Victor*; it is surrounded like the Place Royale at Paris, with regular houses, supported by arcades.

It is near forty years since the new quarter adjoining the sea was built; its streets are spacious and well laid out. Here also is the *Place Imperiale*, where the troops are exercised. This space, planted with two rows of beautiful elms, affords an agreeable promenade during the day.

The terrace is a very high platform, supported by a suit of buildings, used as merchants warehouses. The prospect, which extends over a vast expanse of sea, presents a most delightful spectacle.

On descending towards the west of this beautiful terrace, we arrived at a path cut around the rock, the sinuosities of which resemble a balcony; when the sea is agitated, the waves dash against it with such violence, as to throw the water to a considerable height, which falling in cascades over these crags, produces an indescribable effect.

From the extremity of the mole, we distinguished the beautiful mountains bordering the coast of Genoa. The port at which we arrived is altogether the work of arts, nature having only furnished the site on a tongue of land to the eastward of a rock, on which formerly stood the castle, and to the west of the mountain *Montboron*, near which stands fort *Montalban*.

The dress of the females consists of a close jacket, ornamented, on gala-days, with ribbons or bouquets; the petticoat is long, but, like the apron, is without any ornament. The common people of both sexes, except at festivals, wear their hair bound with a green fillet. Towards Monaco, Vintimille, and the eastern and southern part of the department, the women

sometimes fasten it at the back of their head with a gold or silver bodkin.

The dress of the men is very becoming. They wear a small waistcoat which reaches to their girdle, above it a short habit of the same stuff, with short sleeves; the skirts of this coat are only four inches in length; a girdle of blue or red cloth encircles their waist; their breeches is of the same colour as their coat; and their stockings are of blue or brown woollen.

Literature is in general very little cultivated in Nice. We visited the public library, which contains a great number of theological books, as well as a few other valuable works; but the greatest part of them has been taken away, and others lost, during its frequent removals. It is open every day from nine in the morning till mid-day; and in the afternoon, from two till five o'clock.

In the evening we repaired to the church of St. Etienne, situated in the middle of some fields, half a league from the city, in search of an inscription related by Jozredi; but our search proved fruitless, for it had been removed.

The square inclosure leading to the entrance, which is surrounded by a wall breast-high, is paved with small pebbles, or various coloured stones, disposed in regular order. This Mosaic work represents a Maltese cross, and several other ornaments, in the midst of which we distinguished the date 1724. There is similar Mosaic work before most of the churches and convents of the country.

We passed near a beautiful domain, formerly belonging to the Count of Chais; it is situated in the province of Piol, in a delightful exposure, whence we beheld the sea. They here annually collect from three to four hundred thousand oranges.

The highway is bordered with a hedge of American aloes, of which botanists have made a new genus, under the name of *Agave Americana*. This beautiful plant, which is cultivated in the green-houses in Paris, and with which the apothecaries decorate their shops as a curiosity, grows spontaneously, not only here, but in several other places in the south of France.

We arrived at the convent of Saint-Barthelemy, formerly occupied by the Capuchins, and in which about seven or eight of them still reside, supported on alms, and the produce of a small garden, situated near to the monastery. Here we observed two stone sarcophagi, which are converted to the purpose of water-troughs. Under a kind of shed, which is at present employed as a laboratory, we observed another, on which is inscribed the following affecting lines:

SPARTAC. PATERNAE. VXORI. RARISS
CVIVS. IN. VITA. TANTA. OBSEQVIA. FVER
VT. DIGNE. MEMORIA. EIVS ESSET. REMV
NERANDA L. VERDUCC. MATERNVS
OBLITVS MEDI:CRIRAIR SVAE. VT.
NOMEN ..VS AETERNA ... ECTIONE
CELEBRARETVR HOC MON ...
INSTITVIT

On leaving the convent of Saint-Barthelemy, we directed our steps to the country house, which formerly belonged to the Count della Valle, in the district of Ray.

Near this domain an extensive prospect opens to the view. A weeping willow, surrounded by several groupes of trees, produces a most picturesque effect.

Cimiez, on account of its antiquities, and Saint-Pons for its charming prospects, are well deserving the attention of travellers; we proceeded to visit them in company with the obliging M. Cristini. The road which leads to Cimiez is very abrupt; the mountain contains some lime and gypsum quarries. After ascending about a league and a half, we reached the heights of Cimiez, from whence we had a view of the basin of Nice, and the barren valley through which flows the Paillon. In this valley formerly stood the city of *Cemenelion*, the capital of a small Greek colony, which was pillaged by the Lombards about the middle of the sixth century, and afterwards totally destroyed by the Saracens.

The ruins of the amphitheatre, known to the inhabitants under the name of the *The Cave of the Fairies*, first attracted our attention. One arcade still remains entire, underneath which the road passes, and the fragments of several others are still discernable. The Arena remains in a pretty perfect state This amphitheatre might contain eight thousand spectators. At present, the Arena is sown with wheat, and planted with olives.

The monastery of ancient *Recollets*, formerly inhabited by forty fathers, now contains only a very small number, who are supported by charity, and the produce of a large garden belonging to the monastery.

The church, termed Notre-Dame de Cimiez, is at present employed as a chapel of ease. The principal gate is supported by seven arcades, and the pavement is formed of Mosaic work. Among the offerings, we remarked a large crocodile, *lacerta alligator*, L. suspended from the roof. In every age and country, the first collections of natural history were found in the

temples; as travellers were eager to deposit in them those curiosities they had collected. Thus we see on medals, fish, suspended in the temples of Neptune; stag-horns were attached to the gates of those of Diana. Hanno, the Carthagenean also consecrated in the temple of Juno the skin of a Gorgon, which was probably only that of some African ape. We, besides, frequently see, in different churches ,remains of whales; and some traveller, most probably, here deposited this American crocodile. The porch is decorated by some wretched paintings; and, among others, Jesus Christ between the two thieves.

The terrace belonging to the garden of the monastery affords a very agreeable walk. We behold from it the valley watered by the Paillon; to the left Saint-Pons; and to the right Nice, with the fortress of Montalban and the sea.

On leaving the monastery, we entered the lands which belonged to the family of Gubernatis, but which are at present possessed by M. de Ferreiro, formerly ambassador from the Ligurian Republic to the French Government. In these grounds we remarked a Roman edifice, and, at a short distance from it, a gallery supported by three arcades, which, we are inclined to believe, must be the remains of the ancient temple of Apollo; which, according to the legend of St. Pons, stood near the ancient amphitheatre, where he suffered martyrdom, though there is nothing certain to indicate the destination of this edifice, nor of the other ruins scattered over the same inclosure.

In this garden were several inscriptions, if we may rely on the testimony of Jofredi and others, but most of them have now disappeared; the others are of little importance, and are, besides, so deeply buried in the earth, that it would require much labour to reach them.

CHAP. XL.

COUNTRY OF NICE——HOUSES——GARDENS——FARMS——ORANGES—OLIVES—VINES—CLIMATE—MANNERS—ANCIENT NOBLESSE—CLERGY—COMMERCE—AMUSEMENTS—MONEY—PLANTS—MANNERS—CITRONS—PORT OF MONACO—TROPHY OF AUGUSTUS—CITY OF MONACO—VILLEFRANCHE—BUILDINGS—RETURN TO NICE.

IN our excursion to Cimiez, Saint-Pons, and Saint-Barthelemy, we entered several farm and country houses. The cul-

ture and productions here displayed, all appear singular to those who are not natives of southern climes.

The houses, which are in general gloomy and ill-constructed, have frequently but one door and window, though their interior be sufficiently capacious. The gardens environing the city are surrounded with high walls; the junction of which forms narrow and angular lanes.

These gardens are not appropriated, as those near Paris and Lyons, to pleasure, but are wholly devoted to the cultivation of useful trees and herbs.

The fields in the vicinity of Nice are not equally well cultivated as the gardens; the greatest number of them is inclosed, but the poverty of the farmers is such, that they are obliged to employ themselves in labours extraneous from their farms.

As an ass and a goat usually compose their whole live stock, manure is extremely scarce; to supply the place of which, they have frequent resource to irrigation.

Oranges are the principal production of their gardens; some of the trees produce from three to four thousand. Olives are likewise cultivated to a considerable extent in this territory; besides what is reserved for home consumption, they export a considerable quantity of olive oil, especially to the north of Europe.

The climate of Nice is particularly favourable to valetudinarians during the winter, which is in general remarkably mild. At Noel, verdure prevails even at this season; the trees are loaded with flowers and fruits, and butterflies are everywhere seen fluttering. If frost sometimes occurs, which only happens during the coldest days, it is but slight, and soon dissipated by the genial influence of the sun. One must be sensible what attractions such a temperature must have for natives of northern regions, and that a sky ever clear, serene, and bespangled during the night with innumerable stars, must have peculiar charms for an inhabitant of the banks of the Thames. From the time of Smollet, who first made known to his countrymen the mildness of this delightful climate, it became the fashion in England to resort to Nice during the winter. The English generally took up their abode in the *Fauxbourg de la Croix*, where the houses and the gardens attached to them are extremely pleasant and agreeable.

However mild and regular the winter be at Nice, yet during the spring the weather is variable and uncertain. It must not be supposed, as some people erroneously imagine, that the heat during the summer is insupportable, since the wind from the west serves to temper it, particularly if care be taken to keep the windows open.

Though the manners of the inhabitants of Nice are more similar to those which prevail in France than in Italy, yet we beheld among them some Italian customs. M Sulzer is of opinion, that some traces of cicesbeism was evident in this city; but they have wholly disappeared since the period of the revolution.

The noblesse, with the exception of three or four families, were extremely poor; and their condition has not been meliorated by the recent changes in the government. The only distinction between them and the other citizens consists in their wearing a long sword; and the people appear to regard them with great respect, however wretched may be their appearance. There are some very ancient families in Nice, such as the Grimaldi's, Gubernati's, &c. but in general, they are of very recent origin.

The clergy were very numerous, but held no very distinguished rank. The bishop was usually a monk, and appeared most commonly dressed in the habit of his order; he enjoyed only a trifling revenue. The present French prelate, M. Colonna, is highly distinguished by his piety and charity. The old ecclesiastics are still enabled to live by the produce of their masses; which, luckily for them, are extremely prevalent among this superstitious people.

There are no commercial houses of any consequence in Nice, but several respectable merchants. Before the revolution, this city afforded a refuge to the many individuals who fled from Marseilles and Genoa, in order to elude their creditors. At present, it is the residence of a great number of Jews, who are not, however, in general, very opulent. The manufacturers depend on Marseilles and Genoa for the raw materials.

The port does not admit of the entrance of large vessels, consequently their maritime commerce is inconsiderable.

The money in circulation was the coin of Piedmont; at present it is that of France.

The inhabitants of Nice are of gentle and peaceable manners: quarrels are rare among them; they are gay and lively, which they owe to the climate under which they live. In general they are rather well-looking, and the race might certainly be brought to greater perfection, if they had more abundant and better nourishment. Their greatest pleasure consists in dancing.

The botanist may find a continual source of amusement in the gardens and environs of Nice. The most beautiful subalpine plants grow in abundance on the surrounding hills, and the valleys teem with the plants and vegetables of the warmest climates.

The *tarantula* is found not only at Nice, but in some other places of Provence: it is now well known, that the terrible effects attributed to this animal are altogether imaginary.

On the 17th of June, we embarked on board the *Anguille*, and proceeded to Menton, the most distant point of our intended excursion. This place is small, but the appearance of the houses announces the riches of the inhabitants. We entered the church, which is extremely neat, and where we saw a great number of young girls engaged in reciting prayers.

Citron trees, *citrus medica*, L. form the principal riches of this happy climate. The fruit is exported to France, England, Holland, and even to Hamburgh; where they are commonly sold at twenty-five franks the thousand, in time of peace, and twenty-eight during war.

After passing a few hours at Menton, we embarked, and very soon arrived at Monaco.

Our object in this excursion was to visit the Trophy of Augustus; to which the Curé, M. Rosetti, obligingly conducted us. It is a high tower, raised on a square basement: upon this tower, it is said, was placed the statue of Augustus, to which it was necessary to ascend by two stair-cases, supported by columns of the Doric order, and which were decorated towards the north and south by trophies; but it is impossible to judge of the accuracy of this description, as there at present remains of this tower only a heap of stones.

After taking some repose, on our return from Monaco, we proceeded to take a view of the city, the entrance to which is by a paved rampart, having six gates.

In the evening we repaired to Villefranche. Nothing can be more elegant than the port of this city, and the edifices which surround it. The city was built by Charles II. king of Sicily and count of Provence. The temperature of Villefranche is the mildest imaginable, and may well be compared to that of Naples. The olive trees here attain to great beauty, as well as all the plants and vegetables peculiar to southern climates.

After visiting Villefranche, we again entered our bark, and doubled the point of Montalban, which at once defends Villefanche and Nice, and in the course of an hour reached this last city.

END OF PART I. OF MILLIN.



A Woman.

A Woman of [illegible]



Fig.^s 1.2. Women of Arles, in the Old Custume. 3 another in the Present Dress.

A TOUR

THROUGH PART OF

GERMANY, POLAND, RUSSIA, SWEDEN, DENMARK, &c.

DURING THE SUMMER OF 1805.

BY J. G. SEUME.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN.

" Veritatem sequi & colere, tueri justitiam, æque omnibus bene velle ac facere, nil extimescere."

LONDON:

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1807.

A TOUR

THROUGH PART OF

GERMANY, POLAND, RUSSIA, SWEDEN, DENMARK, &c.

LETTER I.

BRESLAU, *18th April*, 1805.

MY friend, I shall transmit to you, from time to time, the contents of my travelling journal.

Nothing particular occurred on the way to Dresden. At Meissen, I could not but lament that so little improvement is made as to shape and decoration in our porcelain. I remember that I once paid sixty dollars in Berlin for a single cup, which I bought for a wealthy Russian, and which had no further ornament upon it than a head of Frederic the second. Whether Dresden is improved, or I am become a better judge, I know not; but the character of the inhabitants appeared in my eyes materially different. I did not observe so much fancied importance and ridiculous pride as before disgusted me.

On this occasion I visited the gallery, and (half a dozen of the classic paintings excepted) did not find it near so rich in the better Italian schools as I expected; so much the richer is it, however, in the Flemish, both as to number and merit. The Dresden collection is still, in my opinion, the next in value to that of Paris; at least I know of none in Italy, which can dispute the point with it. The store of antiques is very large, and the above observation also applies to them, especially as the Venus of Medicis and Family of Niobe are now removed to Paris. The young Faun, the Dorso, the Venus, the Ariadne, the Matron, and some others, undoubtedly belong to the most valuable productions of the art. It is almost evident to me that Canova took the beautiful attitude of his Hebe from the young Faun at Dresden. It is almost exactly similar; what confirms me in the supposition is that he formerly was

known to have often examined the statue for a considerable time with silent enthusiasm. The mummies are to be seen in greater perfection elsewhere. An ancient bust, which is supposed to represent Caligula, particularly attracted my attention, as I had previously seen a copy of it, in which I fancied that I discovered a strong resemblance to a certain great man of our times; and this opinion was rather confirmed than diminished by an examination of the antique itself. Becker, whose merit and judgment no one more highly esteems than I do, has told us that if the ancient artists produced only nine truly classic works, Dresden can boast that she possesses five of them. Surely there is some partiality in this remark. He should be content if it were acknowledged that she possesses a quarter of them.

In the Green Chamber I saw abundant proof of the elector's great wealth.

I was highly gratified by the rehearsal of the oratorio, which is to be performed at Easter. Schuster made the performers repeat over and over again any passages in which they were not quite perfect.

At Bautzen I only found one of my friends at home, and at Gorlitz I merely saw Antony while we changed horses. From this place and Walden we had fine views of the Giant Mountain, which we caught at intervals for several days. The most picturesque point from which we surveyed it, was on the heights between Waldau and Bunzlau about sun-set, after which we had a romantic drive by moonlight through the vale of Bober. Of all the mountains which I have yet seen, the Giant Mountain is one of the most beautiful and fertile. Ætna alone exceeds it in these perfections, and the Apennine between Florence and Bologna may contest the point. It is surpassed by the Alps in awful grandeur and sublimity; but serenity of appearance, and abundance of produce, are its characteristics. While surveying it, I seemed to be again enjoying the spring of last year. There stood the Giant before me with his snowy head as in the former April. It was then that I was the first, as at Ætna, who climbed through the roaring tempest to the summit, and looked down upon the vales below through the magic clouds that rolled past in rapid succession. I followed the numerous windings of the river, and retraced the enchanting vales of Warmbrunn, Hirschberg, and Schmiedeberg. It is seldom that the traveller sees a more delightful country than this. It was here that I last year plucked the first violet, and heard the note of the first nightingale.

The plain of Liegnitz is perhaps one of the most extensive in Europe; the one near Chalons is not more so. The villages

in Silesia have, in general, an appearance of comfort. It is true that the houses are only thatched; but the chimnies, windows, and doors, are every where tolerably neat and clean; and this appearance always conveys to me an idea of good economy and management within. The name of the village is always painted on a post at the entrance of it, a regulation, which must be of considerable service to those who superintend the police of the country. These names are, however, becoming illegible, and ought to be renewed. Every one here is complaining of the dearness of corn, which is hardly to be procured; but the situation of those beyond the hills in Bohemia is much more lamentable; for I understand that an actual famine prevails there. The exportation of grain from Silesia is strictly prohibited; but considerable quantities, nevertheless, find their way out of the country. "Our neighbours supplied us when we needed their assistance," say the inhabitants openly, "and we cannot, therefore, let them die for want of bread." Who can decide whether this is humanity or the love of gain? It is a happiness that Providence has interwoven the passions with the general welfare. Man, politically and morally formed as he now is, would do but little good from the pure pleasure of doing it.

Since my arrival in Breslau, I have heard Graun's Death of Jesus, in the church of St. Elizabeth.

The vocal part of the performance was not very good; but the choruses were charmingly assisted by a most excellent organ. I scarcely remember a work of the kind, which possesses more merit. The conversation of the day still turns upon the oil of vitriol, which was thrown from a box of the theatre in the face of a female performer, and nearly caused her immediate death. The circumstance is a mournful proof of our degraded manners. Even the possibility and certainty of such an action having been committed in a quarter, where the first society of a large town is in the habit of assembling, excites abhorrence. Yet from a most mistaken notion of honour, those, whose duty it is to discover the perpetrator of this outrage, have not done it. It is no credit, I allow, to the duchy of Silesia, that any inhabitant of it could be guilty of such an act; but the disgrace will not be obliterated by an attempt to conceal it. True honour requires publicity and punishment. The wretch who could sink so low deserves no mercy. Besides, the wanton act of villainy has not even the merit of originality When in Holland, I heard of a tailor, who availed himself of the same means, but in a much more humane manner; for he was accustomed to take opportunities of sprinkling this preparation on the clothes of his customers, with a view of increasing his bu-

siness. Being discovered, he was very properly committed to the house of correction.

LETTER II.

SCHAWL in LITHUANIA, 29*th April*, 1805.

HERE I am again, my dear friend, among the Samogitians shuddering with cold, while you perhaps are plucking the flowers in your garden, or listening to the nightingale. A deep snow has fallen here to-day, and an intense frost threatens to succeed it.

A journey through Poland may, in my opinion, be reckoned a campaign. Since the last alteration or rather annihilation of the government, the traveller will find his conveniences materially abridged. This may appear impossible; but it is, nevertheless, true. I am able to draw the comparison with accuracy, as I travelled through the country several times and in various directions, when it was under the government of Stanislaus Poniatowsky. The district between Wartemberg and Warsaw (Petrikaw and Rawa excepted) is particularly to be pointed out as affording only wretched accommodation. Poverty and filth prevail among Christians as well as Jews—among the former, if possible, in a greater degree. Speaking in the strictest sense of the expression, and without any exaggeration, the manure-heap is, at most Polish houses in the country, the spot on which you can stand with least disgust. The neighbourhood of Warsaw, and other places here and there, afford exceptions to this observation.

After we had been hungering and hoping for several stages, we were at length promised tea at the post-house in Wielky. An old dirty broken copper-pot was introduced, which appeared as if it had contained some gypsey's mess ever since the Revolution. It required such ravenous appetites as we possessed to make the tea, as they termed it, drinkable. I must, however, mention that the post-house at Rawa is very good and the charges very reasonable.

It is to be lamented that Buchhorn and Co. are not here at Schawl; for such an assembly of *Hogarthish* figures and groupes are seldom to be seen as at a Polish fair: Germans, Poles, Russians, Jews, all with the most distinct and prominent character. Take myself among them with a beard six days old, which I here bade adieu to. In the capacity of barber appeared a tall lean ghost-like Israelite with a beard down to his girdle. I sat upon a tottering three-legged stool while he clumsily performed

the operation, and the old Donna of the house, pacing from one side of the room to another, grumbled at having been disturbed in her habitual indolence.

It would be difficult to determine whether the appearance of Russian or Prussian Poland is more deplorable. Yet the people are not poor. They have bags of gold, and almost lie in filth, destitute of the common necessaries of life. If one of the town-soldiers of Leipzig were condemned to the same privations, he would shoot himself. Yesterday, a village of some consequence, in which were probably a hundred houses that had each a dozen windows and even some chimnies, could not supply us with a drop of beer; in another, the beer was sublimated with ingredients, which made it a truly Stygian draught.

In the history of the Church I had heard of many strange baptismal ceremonies, and among the rest that of baptising corn, which I had here an opportunity of seeing for the first time at Easter. A man walked up and down the field with a vessel of holy water, and sprinkled it upon the seed. Another from time to time stuck something in the earth, which, as I afterwards heard, were consecrated wooden crucifixes, and on fixing these in their places, he muttered some form of prayer. If the ground be well tilled, the seed properly sown, and the weather favourable, this pious ceremony will do no harm. Ridiculous farces of this description prevail every where during Easter, particularly at Petrikau.

I reached Warsaw on the 17th of April, the very evening on which, eleven years before, I stood in the midst of many a fire of musquetry. Those were two severe days, and well I remember them. I found several buildidgs just in the state of ruin that they then were. Not a stone had been replaced, and it seemed as if the inhabitants felt a melancholy pleasure in contemplating the monument of their last national energy. Our dining-room is a complete ruin, — the guard-house a wash-house, the war-office a smith's forge, and my lodging-room behind the palace hangs as it were in the air, without any stairs to it. The time will soon arrive when I must live on recollection. I stood, therefore, at the gate-way, the entrance of which we blocked on that fatal day with the dead bodies of our fellow-creatures, and the carcases of horses; and looked back on the various incidents of my fate. I counted all the balls which had fortunately escaped my head, and the marks of which were still visible in the wall. The whole tragedy recurred to me.

Dura satis miseris memoratio prisca malorum;
Et gravius summo culmine mssa ruunt.

is written on the window of M. Schulz in Petrikau. But why should I tire you with a detail of former times? My voice, compared with the *Fuimus Troes* of the Poles, is but a drop in the ocean. They dwell with enthusiasm on the recollection of past events, and catch at every glimpse of hope, which promises the regeneration of their native land. The man is worthy of respect, who weeps over the grave of that, which is the most sacred blessing on earth; but no more of this, I am become a rhapsodist.

I have no doubt that the peasant has gained more under the Prussian than the Russian government; for the Prussian system is in every respect somewhat more liberal towards the lower orders of the community than the Russian. For this reason the nobility hangs more to the side of Russia, which is always oppressive, and friendly to slavery. An inclination towards the Russians is, however, to be found among all the other classes of the nation, in spite of every effort to counteract it on the part of the Prussian government. The recollection of Lucchesini's promises and his performance of them is deeply rooted in every heart. To this may be added the rigorous duties exacted, particularly the excise, which is, not without reason, looked upon as oppressive and hateful, and the execution of which is not always conducted in the most humane manner. Further, there is a nearer connection between the Poles and Russians, they being people of one and the same race, easily understanding each other, and soon learning to look on each other as brothers. With many too, the secret wish to be under one sceptre may have its further effect, for the hope of Poland regaining her influence as a state would in several respects be thereby increased.

Warsaw is sinking very gradually into a provincial government-town. The rich withdraw to Berlin or Petersburgh, according to their different distances from those places. They only, whose family affairs will not allow so great a change, or who are attached to the place from principle, inclination, &c. remain there. The military is more numerous than when the Russians played the master, which is easily to be accounted for on political grounds. The guards parade in the Saxon-court as it is termed, where I formerly saw Suworow command the Russians, undressed to his shirt. The great pavilion in the centre of the garden, where the company used formerly to take refreshment, is, for some purpose unknown to me, taken away. Many palaces stand empty, or are converted into hotels; of which the palace belonging to the family of Borch, where the Russian

ambassadors resided, is the best, and known by the new name of the Hotel de Prusse.

M. Boguslawsky, the man who perhaps after Kosciusko deserves to be called the last of the Poles, has still his theatre here, and seems only to live for the purpose of offering sacrifices to his native country, and then to die in it and with it. He is certainly in his sphere one of the first managers of the age, and in many characters fully deserves to be placed at the side of Iffland—in some perhaps even at his right side. All his arrangements are made judiciously and with taste. He is indeed a pupil of Stanislaus Poniatowsky, who was decidedly the first *arbiter elegantiarum*.

In Laschenka every thing is, indeed, empty and desolate, but in tolerable order. Sobieski's statue stands exactly opposite to the former chambers of Poniatowsky. The good man could hardly have invented a better satire on himself. Not far from here some recruits were exercising. I observed them from different sides for some hours, and confess with pleasure that they were treated with much good humour and kindness.

Near Praga, I stopped for a minute at the place, where King Poniatowsky was detained by his affectionate consort, as he went to the army. In my Lines upon his Death, there is not a syllable, which to my knowledge deviates from historical truth.

The flood was immense, we were twice obliged to cross the Bug with our carriage, and each time to pay ten guilders, without any previous agreement having been made. It appears to me that a system of police has never yet been thought of. We now travelled for a whole day in the direction of the Bug, and did not find the road so destitute of accommodations as before we reached Warsaw. At many points we saw the Austrian dominions over the river, particularly at Brock, where a solitary hussar lay in garrison, and stepped forth as the whole military detachment.

Between Wischkow and Brock, at a place where the carriage stopped, a soldier approached me with papers in his hand, and solicited my charity. The papers were his discharge, and a letter from the king's adjutant general, M. von Kleist. The soldier's name was Joseph Haacke, of Owstien's regiment. He related that his captain, a M. von Schenk, had struck him, during exercise, so forcibly with a spontoon upon the breast that he had broken the bone. He had been long in the hospital, and suffered much; after which he was discharged as unfit for service. His breast bone, which he shewed, had a shocking appearance. He had applied to the king for a pension, or an invalid's place, had been obliged to wait a fortnight, and then received from his majesty towards his expences in travelling

home to Dubno, about a hundred and eighty German miles from Berlin, a gracious present of two Frederic-d'ors. All this was actually stated on paper by M. von Kleist. Had I been in the same situation as the soldier, a couple of bullets would, I grant, have been a more acceptable present; and taking it for granted that the story was true, I should not, at this moment, like to be the king or Kleist, and least of all Schenk. Better would it be for all, if matters were really otherwise. The two Frederic-d'ors were nearly exhausted, and my florin would probably not take him much farther; especially as he breathed with considerable difficulty. So much for Joseph Haacke of Dubno.

At Checkanowice, close on the Bug, the Prussian recruiting officer hoped for a rich harvest at the fair, which was to take place on the following day, when many a man would drink away his freedom. The difference of charge in our bill was striking. For a night's lodging in an unfurnished chamber with broken windows, destitute of bedstead, or the least convenience, we paid a ducat, and for a tolerable breakfast, consisting of warm beer with bread and butter, in rather a cleanly room, only six groats.

Bialaslock, the favourite residence of the last Polish monarch, is certainly the most inviting place on the road from Warsaw to Grodno. Here, as well as at Rawa and Widawa, they are erecting numerous and solid buildings; and in other places too a disposition to improvement is visible. From Buckstell, the road rises without intermission as far as Sokolka, and then proceeds along the heights Kuniza, from which place there is a gradual descent to Grodno. At the first Russian post we were detained an hour during the examination of our passport, and the Cossacks directly begged money to expend in drinking, without afterwards allowing us to proceed. The commanding officer probably knew the use of a sword better than of a pen; for one might have written out a brief for a long criminal process before he dispatched us. The proceedings at the toll-house were equally slow; but all was conducted with civility and decorum.

Russian weather makes a man alert. It was a very severe winter, when I was first at Pleskow, and after leaving a party, I was making the best of my way to my own lodgings. "My God, how quick he runs!" called a little girl behind me. Here at Grodno, being obliged to sit so long in the toll-house, I took out my pocket book, and noted some little occurrence on the road. "My God, how quick he writes!" said one of the men near me.

We were directed to M. Harbatowsky, as keeping the best inn, and the rooms were really tolerable. At supper time a saloon was thrown open, and a splendid Easter banquet invited

us to sit down. It was just the celebration of this festival among the Russians. Ostentation and expence seemed to go hand in hand, as they usually do; but so much the more sparingly was the table supplied on the following day. As a proof that it was probably the best house in the place, a Russian major brought some travellers of consequence to it, and they were the only persons with whom I sat down to dinner. No one eat much—the tureen was cracked, the plates were *vandyked* here and there, and all the bottles had broken their necks. By way of cleanliness and propriety too, a dog was served from the same dish, which had just been taken from our table.

Grodno is not improved. From the castle to the small huts, dilapidation every where arrests the eye. From that place to Kowno we were driven by Jews, who are noted there as the best postillions. I had forgotten to provide myself with a post-pass, and would not willingly wait another day. You must know that no one can here travel post with a general passport, but a special one must be procured of the Russian governor at the chief town. The passport is indeed the *majus*, and therefore ought to include the post-pass or *minus*, but such is not the case, and the greatest inconvenience is, that this post-pass is sure to create delay: for instance, he who arrives to-day at Grodno, or any other government-town, can travel no further till the officers of police have given him this document; consequently he is obliged to stay all night against his inclination. This little evil of society we must, however, submit to, in return for the good which we enjoy.

We now proceeded along the right banks of the Memel. The country round Olita is very pleasant; but cultivation is no forwarder than on the other side of the river in Prussian Poland. The road is altered, and the traveller can no longer proceed straight to Kowno, as before; but must go by Wilna, twelve miles out of his way; and the new regulations create many difficulties. Every thing here was winterly in the middle of May—the trees were still leafless. One particular species of plant only had put forth its blossom, which somewhat resembled that of a cherry, and smelt not unlike a violet. I can distinguish a cucumber plant from a potatoe, and there ends my botanical knowledge.

The Russians had here and there converted barns into ammunition magazines, a measure by no means to be approved. Every spark is attended with danger, and how probable is a negligence which, in such a case, may have fatal consequences! The Prussians at least guard this article with military exactness, and have built good stone magazines on the banks of the Bug.

In going down the Memel, our best resource was the fine pike taken in that river, and I do not remember to have ever tasted them in higher perfection. At Kowno, a fish was served up, which was there called *Zerb*, and which resembled a herring both in appearance and taste.

On every side we still perceived the devastations committed by the Cossacks and Yagers during the last war. The spirit of laying a country waste is dishonourable to human nature. Peter the First, who was not remarkable for refinement, dismissed the officer with disgrace, and made the soldier run the gauntlet, who cut down a single tree without orders; yet now whole woods and gardens are swept away, to make a dreary country more completely a desert.

The floods had here also done much injury; and the Werchnaja had carried away the whole bridge, besides bursting the banks. No arrangement had yet been made for crossing, and even foot-passengers could not reach the other side. We should have had a long and tedious circuit to make, if we did not cross here. Several persons at length passed over upon planks curiously laid for the purpose, and pointed out that it was possible to draw the carriage through the river a little below the mill. This was resolved on, and began with no little exertion as well as some danger. But now the carriage had reached the mill-court, and could proceed no further; for the gate had not been measured, and was at least a foot too low. What was to be done? A dozen stout fellows soon took off the wheels, reduced our vehicle to a sort of sledge, and dragged it with much labour safely to the other side of the river. The sturdy boors rejoiced, as if their native land had recovered her importance, when they saw our heavy carriage landed. Such ready cheerful assistance is, I must own, not often to be met with in Germany.

At Kowno we changed horses, and were, therefore, obliged to wait a while. For the sake of security I had always hired a man to guard the carriage, as there were articles of value in it. On applying to the landlord here for this purpose, he refused to interfere, stating that it was a matter belonging to the police. I sent to the office, and a corporal with two file of men immediately made their appearance in regular order, and surrounded the carriage. The corporal had some trouble with one of his men, who seemed to have been drinking deep. "The devil take thee, fellow," said he, "thou hast been drunk these four days." "Slawa bogu, Sudar, cebodni pjaetoi," answered the soldier, "God be thanked, sir, then this is the fifth."

Near the town a spacious and handsome convent has lately

been built, which will, I hope, be converted into some seminary of rational education; for what monks can have to do here, I am not, with all my piety, able to discover.

The public at Kowno were not disposed to say the most pleasant things in the world of General Zapolsky. He constantly paraded through the market place in this splendid carriage with a most magnificent retinue. People of observation know what kind of men sometimes sit in such a carriage. A little time before there had been a fire in the city, on which occasion the general caused a servant of a respectable citizen *ex plenitudine auctoritatis* to receive three hundred lashes, because he had, in the midst of the crowd, been guilty of so heinous a crime as to throw down one of the general's establishment. The citizens made a formal complaint to the magistracy, but the general was of opinion that the man had only received his deserts, and threatened farther chastisement in consequence of their bold remonstrance. The citizens now thought of endeavouring to obtain justice by an appeal to the throne; but they feared the effects of the emperor's mild disposition and his partiality to the army. The public, however, spoke with great freedom of the general, and remarked that the regiment never before had so many on the sick list, or was so much thinned by desertion. Above two hundred men lay in the hospital.—Deserters were constantly crossing the river, and almost all the old officers of merit had thrown up their commissions in disgust. If the citizens, as must be confessed, sometimes carry matters too far, yet is the proud barbarous oppressive authority of the military in Russia, more than in other states, a deeply rooted malady. I have heard and seen dreadful instances of it. It is no uncommon thing for an officer to eat at his quarters during several weeks, to overlook innumerable disorders in his men, and on taking his departure to abuse and even strike his landlord, should he have the hardihood to apply for payment. This exploit is afterwards a matter of triumph. Such occurrences are seldom brought to a hearing, and still more seldom are the perpetrators properly punished. The military authority treats the municipality, especially in small towns, (though I do not except the larger) with so much rigour and debasing rudeness, that every feeling of honour and justice is annihilated. "Heaven is high, and the emperor lives far off," says a Russian proverb, and the unsettled state of the laws affords to the wicked extensive power.

Farewell. If I do not close this letter, you will think I am about to write a book of lamentations, which may be very true, but would be of no use.

LETTER III.

REVAL, 18*th May*, 1805.

TRAVEL through Poland, my friend—eat with Jews—sleep amidst the grunting of swine—and you will feel almost a regeneration when you enter a pleasant cleanly room in Courland, are welcomed by a civil well-dressed maid-servant, and are treated with a good meal. Such was our case when we dined at Medemkrug on the borders, and entered the Petersburgh Hotel at Mitau in the evening. At the latter place I saw none of my old acquaintance, as it was late when we arrived, and we proceeded at an early hour next morning. What a gratifying difference between the last Polish Jew's habitation at Kaydan, and the noble inn at Mellopkrug! You will think, perhaps, that it is very difficult to please me—I hope not. A good dish of potatoes will afford me as hearty a meal as a venison-pasty, even if Potemkin sent for it by express from Paris: but I cannot deny that cleanliness as to the apartment, plates, dishes, &c. is indispensable to my comfort.

It was with real delight that I again beheld at a distance the lofty towers of Riga. Wealth has here been induced by the stream to fix her seat upon a barren soil; so kindly does nature supply the want of one advantage by bestowing a greater. Not that I shall agree with the good pastor at Hamburg, that one of the greatest proofs of the care with which Providence constantly watches over us, is his kindnes in causing large rivers to flow near large towns. The shipping was still confined here in May, and the weather was extremely cold. We reached Dorpat before we felt the first few warm days, which announced the approach of spring.

My friends on the banks of the Düna received me with open arms, and I was invited from one house to another, with real hospitality and kindness. Former times connected themselves with the present, and recollection increased the pleasure of the moment. A charming mixture of German frugality and open Northern hospitality prevails here. Splendour and luxury do not yet dazzle the sight, but comfort and a friendly wish to please speak to the heart. On every side may be seen industry and happiness.

The Riga theatre is well known, and may be compared with those of the higher order in Germany. Madame Taube and Madame Oehme are esteemed the best female performers, and probably are so in reality; but they are both deficient in the higher excellences of their art. Arnold is still the favourite singer; and after he has conquered the fears which always seem to oppress him during the first scene, his acting is not devoid of spirit and propriety.

The public were not very well pleased with the dragooning system of the Governor-general Buxhövden, for whom a party of Cossacks are in the habit of making way through the narrow streets with their pikes, sometimes not in the most friendly manner. Such was not the conduct of Brown and Repnin; hence it creates surprise, though it is by no means uncommon in Russia. The conversation of the day turned on the process against the superintendant-general Sonntag, a man who has ever distinguished himself by his zeal in the cause of truth and virtue, through which he has gained but a very problematic kind of favour among the higher ranks. It is not easy to read any thing more feeble and unconnected than the charges of the general against him. His defence was easy and conclusive, and delivered with open firmness. The monarch and ministry did him the most ample justice which he could expect. Party rancour was incapable of subduing the unshrinking spirit which a good cause supplied. Surprise was, however, here and there loudly expressed that after such a result of the process, Count Buxhövden should still occupy a post, which required a pure unsullied character. The general opinion is not controuled by any ukase.

One of the novel curiosities which attracted my attention at Riga, was the work of a cabinet-maker from Lemsal, whose name I have forgotten. He probably does not equal Röntgen; but I have seen nothing either in Saxony, or at Berlin, which excels his workmanship in solidity and neatness. The man certainly deserves encouragement; indeed his pupils are already sought after, and one of them is employed in the academic buildings at Dorpat, where he gives great satisfaction. One of his most finished undertakings is a representation in wood, of the three Swiss patriots, swearing the first alliance. The pieces of different-coloured wood are inlaid; the figures are, for this kind of work, very correct, devoid of hardness or coarseness, and are not inferior to the best modern mosaic. They have the merit of being laid with perfect exactness to a considerable depth, so that their surface may be planed several times without injury, and thus their freshness renewed.

From Riga, there are several continued stages, through a heavy sand. After leaving Lenzenhof, I bent to the right and

reached Lindenhof, near which, several pleasing hills and dales formed a contrast to the dreary road we had passed. From Lindenhof, I took a direction on the left again to the road, and passed through Wolmar to Dorpat. The district between Wolmar and Gulbin is again sandy and woody; but between Teilitz and Kuikatz there is an agreeable variety of country, which appears tolerably fertile and well cultivated.

It is rather mortifying when a man sees a pleasant place just before him, at which he is about to stop, and is suddenly detained by some untoward accident before he reaches the point. The carriage was proceeding at a good pace on very smooth road, when the axle-tree broke, the machine over-turned, and its contents were lodged in a ditch. The horses very sensibly stood still, and I worked my way out with my young friend, having sustained no injury beyond a trifling contusion. The driver, however, who but just before had been unmercifully swinging his whip without intermission over his head, now applied his fingers to his ribs, which had sustained so much injury, that we were obliged to confide him to the care of Surgeon Kauzmann, at Dorpat.

Here I regained my ancient perfect freedom, by delivering my young travelling companion safely into the bosom of his family. A person never feels quite at his ease with such a charge, because he naturally undertakes to deliver it sound in body and mind. You know what scruples my friends at home had; but they carried their anxiety too far: all ended well.

You will expect me to say something respecting the Athenæum on the banks of the Embach. Rome was not built in a day. As far as I can judge, the appearance is promising. Several worthy men are using their utmost exertions to give the institution consequence and stability. The collision with the nobility, (for in what does not the nobility try to incorporate its privileges?) is apparently suspended for the present; the rest will be done by time, and the necessity of circumstances. For the solidity of the establishment the monarch has provided; so that a Russian university can never be very bad, unless it is totally neglected. The sciences have made a good beginning, and promise to flourish.

A principal objection usually made to the Russian universities is, that schools are yet wanting; that these should be first provided; and that without this foundation the building of knowledge cannot proceed. This sounds like rational argument, and elsewhere might be so; but in Russia the objection does not hold good. There the smaller schools must be created by the larger, if any hope is to be formed of a general improvement in education. The indispensable condition of this general

improvement is the personal liberty of all; but the slavery of their boors, is the palladium of the nobility. The smaller schools will never be established, and succeed as long as the lower citizens and peasants do not themselves feel the want and advantages of them, and can lend their aid in behalf of them. The nobility will never do any thing towards them without at the same time having their own views, by which, the general advantage will be again destroyed. This lies in the very nature of things. It were absurd to believe that there are not some among the nobility, who have good intentions; but the spirit of their body is in opposition to improvement, and subdues every effort of reason and justice.

Hence, a higher species of education is no more to be expected in Russia for centuries, than in Germany. Even the French could not yet bear it. The professors appear, not without reason, to have feared that the influence of the nobility would be exerted with respect to the management of the academic estates, and the appointment to offices, and that a nepotism would thus be established. But it is not necessary that a person should be a nobleman, to feel this desire of aggrandizing his own family.

It is therefore not a groundless fear, that unless the body appointed to overlook the affairs of this establishment, be strictly attentive, a nepotism on the part of the professors may ensue. The gymnasia, and provincial schools under the direction of the universities, will, I think, gradually gain a good footing in defiance of the difficulties which they have to encounter. Now that all is in good order, the dislike to the new academic inspection will be removed by liberal conduct. In what other body ought such an inspection to be vested? If it has been, on some occasions, negligently and improperly conducted, this does not destroy the propriety, which is fundamentally inherent in the regulation. The greatest difficulty seems to be, that the professors cannot take their journeys of inspection without injury to their own departments, and that some of them probably do not possess the exactness of a pedagogue, which is necessary for such an employment. During the recess, the teacher needs repose, in order to prepare himself for future labour. It would, perhaps, answer the purpose, if the emperor were to appoint for this particular office, a person at each university, whose ability and industry have been proved; who might under certain regulations, have the inspection of the manner in which the schools were conducted, and report the same.

The monarch himself will not yet be able to establish the parochial schools, whatever Parrot and other well-meaning enthusiasts may have laid before him to the contrary. He

himself is unable to furnish the whole fund necessary for the purpose; the nobility give nothing; the peasantry can give nothing, and are far from feeling the want of a better education. All that the emperor has till now been willing to do towards the measure is of little avail.

Slavery will allow no idea of public justice; and it is to slavery that the nobility cling so fast in reality, though they strive to avoid the hateful word. The newly-established Boor's Court is a measure, by which the nobleman preserves just such regulations among his vassals as suit his purpose. If I appoint the members of a court, and remove them at my pleasure, I controul that court. The consequence is, that many of the lower orders wish matters had remained on their old footing. At a university, round which such principles, or rather such want of principles, must constantly be put in practice, it is difficult indeed to teach with impartiality history and the law of nature.

The academical building on the height near the town, upon the site of the old cathedral, will have a commanding appearance, and answer its purposes as a chapel, a library, and a museum. Thus much advantage is already derived from it, that several portions of ground, hitherto lying waste all round it, are built upon and converted into gardens. Whether the house opposite will equally answer its end as a school of anatomy, or an observatory, I leave better judges to decide. The library is already rather numerous, and must soon become of consequence, if the ample sum of five thousand rubles per annum be judiciously expended. Morgenstern lives there as if in a creation formed according to his fancy; and Heaven grant him many enjoyments in return for his exertions! The museum too at least begins to assume some importance; and Germann is active in procuring and arranging the curiosities. It is, I grant, not to be compared with the Moscow collection.

Botany is a favourite study with several noblemen in the surrounding district. Among others, the wealthy M. von Lipphardt devotes a considerable sum annually to it, and Count Munich is, I understand, a proficient in the science. The plan of the university is a good one, and every active support may be expected from its curator, M. Klinger. It is, therefore, to be hoped that, in spite of difficulties, it will soon be of service to the empire and the sciences.

At Dorpat I threw my Sicilian seal-skin knapsack on my own shoulders, and walked in high glee toward Oberpalen, where I had promised, before I left home, to pay a visit. It was out of my way, but I had rather break my leg than my word. The walk was pleasant, the sun diffused a genial warmth, without being oppressive, and I recited some favourite passages from

Virgil, as I cheerfully marched along. I never feel so free, so vigorous, and independent as when walking.

The Brown Jug was not a tempting house in appearance; but the good folks very civilly offered to make me an ox-eye for dinner, and were sorry they could offer nothing else. Not being well versed in the kitchen nomenclature of Esthonia, I was quite ignorant what sort of a dish this might be; but at all events I thought it would be something eatable, and therefore, without further question, ordered the ox-eye, which proved to be a kind of omelet, principally consisting of eggs. They brought me some craw-fish into the bargain, and I made a hearty meal.

Careless about distance, as a foot-passenger often is, I wandered boldly forward on the high road, till evening overtook me, and I saw by the guide-post that I had walked fifty-seven versts. There was no house, bearing the appearance of an inn, to be seen before or behind me, to my right or my left; and it was not very comfortable to be told by a Russian driver, who passed me, that I had bent too much to the right, and must return half a dozen versts to Kawa, if I meant to reach Oberpalen. What was to be done? I had the fatigue of fifty-seven versts in my bones, and evening was come on. I therefore immediately agreed with the driver that he should take me to Kawa, which he did, and gave me in return for my paper a heavy load of copper coin. Kawa in Italy is a very beautiful place, between Naples and Salerno, on the most charming road in all Hesperia. Should you ever be at Naples, and neglect to take this trip, at least once, no Muse ought ever to smile on you again. Here in Esthonia, Kawa is a dreary barren country, as forbidding as the other is engaging.

My feet were rather painful from this first and too great exertion; so that I the next morning with pleasure accepted the friendly offer of a learned Esthonian, to take me in his carriage to Oberpalen. The man spoke Russian, German, and Swedish, besides his own language, had been in Paris, and had acquired a number of qualifications as a servant, which he could make no further use of as my coachman. He brought a light carriage without springs, as usual in this country, and well stuffed with hay, to make me a tolerable seat. My knapsack was tied behind, and thus drawn by a rough poney we entered the wood. My conductor entertained me, as well as his pipe would allow, with a detail of his travels and experience. "But what is this smell of burning?" demanded I, examining the vehicle on every side. He peeped here and there also; saw nothing; continued to smoke, and to relate his adventures. The scent became stronger, and at length the clear flame blazed through the hay

on which we were sitting. "Help, Heaven, help!" cried my Vetturino of Kawa. "As you have caused the fire with your cursed pipe, you may extinguish it," said I, and seized my knapsack. This was, however, unfortunately fastened securely —the flames rose high, and I could not, in my haste, find a knife. I pulled at it with all my strength, and tore the straps asunder, by which I felt happy at saving my shirts and Aristophanes. "Help, Heaven, help!" continued the driver to scream, as he beheld his vehicle in a blaze. "Blockhead," said I, "don't you see that there is water in the ditch?" He now filled his leather cap, which he repeated a dozen times, and I was so busy with my stick among the hay that we soon subdued the enemy. Had we been on an open plain, where no water could be procured, the carriage would have been inevitably consumed.

At Oberpalen, I was welcomed by a most friendly family, and enjoyed for some days the delight of a rural life, and hospitable polished society. We went in a coach to Weissenstein, a name without a place, where the ancestors of the present lords of the soil, under the mask of a religion which teaches brotherly love, brought slavery and wretchedness upon a free people. The place could only have served as a fortress, in as much as it is situated in a morass, and even then only against half-barbarians as the Esthonians were at that time, and the Russians some centuries afterwards. Government is now making many efforts to rebuild a town, which, under existing circumstances, is not very easy. A few government-houses, and the habitations of a mechanic or two, are all that at present can be seen.

I now directed my way to Reval, as I was already in the line for that place, and the main oad lay too much to my right. Here, all appearance of human cultivation ceased, and in the public-houses I usually found nothing but naked walls. Few people travel on a bye-road without carrying their own basket and flask; so that the poor inn-keepers cannot keep any provisions without a great probability of loss. Hence a person undoubtedly travels at a very cheap rate, but in the most comfortless manner that can be imagined. In the evening I could find nothing but a piece of old hard uncooked salt-beef, which, after the excellent fare I had been used to since leaving Poland, I could not well relish, and as to beer, that of which I complained in Poland was nectar, when compared with this. However, I had a chamber to myself, and a horse-rug for a coverlet, the nights being still very cold. In an adjoining room slept a butcher from Reval and a tailor from Karkus. The latter contrived by his industry, early in the morning, to procure a hundred craw-fish for ten copeks, which were naturally placed to my account, and with which I generously treated the trium-

virate, viz. the butcher, the tailor and myself. At how cheap a rate may a man purchase the credit of possessing generosity! The craw-fish were as good as I ever tasted in my life; and the quality of my supper on the preceding evening might perhaps tend to give them a superior flavour.

In Woit, where I passed my second night, the spacious inn was just as empty and desolate as those which I have described; and I should again have fared just as ill, had I not accidentally met with an old acquaintance M. von Stakelberg, who in the true spirit of chivalry took compassion on me. When we parted, I hired a carriage, having somewhat injured my foot by walking over stony roads, and on entering Reval I alighted, discharged my equipage, and pursued my course with a limping gait to Stolzenwald's inn. A good room and a good meal refreshed me much. My appearance, however, with a knapsack on my back, had doubtless appeared to the people rather suspicious; for they afterwards ceased to pay me the least attention. The antichamber was a billiard-room, where a constant noise was caused by all sorts of people. You must know that an accident happened to me ten years ago, by which my left foot was injured, and to this hour it is weaker than the other; so that any false step gives me considerable pain. Now, in my opinion, the most wholesome exercise is that of walking, and I am sometimes in the habit of saying, before I undertake a journey, that I shall only travel a few hundred miles on foot, because I am lame. On the present occasion my foot was much swollen, and extremely painful. I had several times requested warm water—no one brought it. I called, I stamped, I even shouted—no one heard, or no one would hear. At length my patience was exhausted. I summoned resolution, and supporting myself on my stick, I limped into the kitchen, and read the following lecture to the assembled household. "Am I landed among savages, that an honest man, when in violent pain, cannot be supplied with the common necessaries for his situation? Shall I stake ten—shall I stake twenty ducats as a security for the payment of my expenses? I am ready to do it; but if there be no one in the house to wait upon me, at least hire some one to do it. Such conduct as I have hitherto experienced is indefensible—it is even inhuman." In the bitterness of my anger I perhaps expressed myself still more forcibly. My auditors, however, seemed to conclude from my language and address that I was not exactly the poor wretch they had taken me for. They supplied me with my wants, and I had no longer any reason to complain. M. Stolzenwald himself was not to blame—he was engaged in his garden, and his people thought I was a fellow, about whom they had no occasion to trouble their heads. Such is often the

case at inns. The next day my name procured me some complimentary messages from the city and my person obtained thereby a considerable increase of attention at my quarters.

LETTER IV.

BRONNIZA, 8th June, 1805.

THAT you may not have to examine a dozen Atlasess in vain, I will at once tell you that Bronniza is twenty-five versts beyond Novgorod, and the first stage between that place and Moscow; a village where after much plague and fatigue a man may contrive to pass a night quietly. Such is just my case; for as I left Novgorod towards evening, all the windows of heaven were thrown open, and the rain fell in torrents on the open carriage which was conveying me. I lay on a small bundle of straw almost starved to death, and with a sort of grumbling defiance let the enemy take its course, which it did to my skin in less than a quarter of an hour. A rainy night in this climate and at this season of the year is much the same as with us in March, or late in the autumn But of what avail are my complaints? Let me take up the thread of my narrative, and conduct you as well as myself hither. Disagreeable occurrences must be calculated on during a long journey, even before a man leaves home. The weather was unfavourable while I remained at Reval, and my foot not in the best state, so I drove about in a Droschke several times to look at the neighbourhood, and particularly the harbour. This is defended from storms by the point of land, which juts out to the left of the town, but I conceive there must still be considerable danger, when the wind blows with a continued violence from the north-west. Its situation is somewhat similar to that of Catanea towards the north-east; only that Catanea is not so well defended by the promontory as Reval; and will hardly become a port of security, unless its neighbour Ætna should fortunately or unfortunately make it so. With Russian exertion and Russian pecuniary aid, Reval may attain its end; but these cannot be expected in Sicily.

The wood on the Düna, near Riga, was one of my favourite resorts, because it consisted of oaks planted by Peter the first; but the Vale of Catharine in this neighbourhood was still more so. It is nearer to the town, and has a more cheerful appearance. It is also the usual and to all appearance the only place of enjoyment for the good people of Reval. As we left that town, which was, I believe, on the 21st of May, the snow was falling to a considerable depth. Every one here complains how back-

ward the spring is; and I am not on this occasion inclined to be Heaven's advocate. My driver was the same with whom I arrived at Reval, and his large covered carriage afforded a good share of convenience in spite of the many articles with which it was laden. My companions were a young man from Reval, who was going to be placed in a merchant's counting-house at Petersburgh, and who had been recommended to my care by his father, and a turner from Copenhagen, the latter appeared to have left his morality at the Sound, and did not seem to have regained any portion of it at Reval. His discourse was certainly very entertaining to the young man, but by no means improving. He at last proceeded too far, and I found myself obliged to inform him that, though he might regulate his own life as he pleased, he ought to be cautious of broaching such doctrines in the presence of young people. After this, and a few other rebukes, he yielded to my suggestion, and conducted himself with more propriety till we reached the borders.

In Reval I expected to have most probably found M. von Kotzebue, and indeed he had been there only the day before, but was gone into the country. I could not spare time to follow him, and therefore proceeded without seeing him. On the road we happened to alight at an inn, where several gentlemen were seated, who, as I heard, were merchants of Reval. One word produces another. Among the rest Kotzebue was the subject of conversation, and one of these votaries of Mercury observed with an air of perfect belief that Kotzebue was going to Königsberg for three months in order to write a History of Prussia. "In three months?" said I. "Yes, in three months," answered the other. "He has already collected many materials, and proceeded considerably in the work." I afterwards heard the anecdote several times repeated, and cannot conceive how any one formed such a notion of Kotzebue. He probably intends, during these three months, to examine and avail himself of documents to be met with at Königsberg. But it appears to me that neither Kotzebue nor Muller ought to write a History of Prussia, because they are Prussian historiographers. How can they avoid the collisions, which must necessarily arise, or escape the charge of partiality? Muller may live at Berlin, and write the History of Switzerland, but a man must not dwell in the country of which he means to speak the truth, or at least he must have no connection with it. This is, to be sure, not much in favour of our liberality, but it nevertheless will be found true on the banks of the Spree, the Elbe, the Seine, and the Neva. London is perhaps a place (but only perhaps) where candour may speak uncontrouled. Karamsin too will give us no real history of Russia, and least of all will he give us that of recent times.

Neither does Karamsin, as far as I know him, possess the earnestness and penetration necessary towards historic research.

I had left my warm greatcoat behind me at Dorpat, thinking I should have no further use for it, but the frost several times convinced me that I was mistaken. The inns are very bad indeed, almost to be compared with those in Poland; and our driver apparently took us to such as afforded better refreshment for his horses than his passengers. Under these circumstances I adhered, according to the contract which I had made respecting the young man placed under my care, to his basket of provisions, and did my best both as to the care of him and myself.

At Jewe I paid a short visit to Provost Koch, the tutor of Kotzebue's children; but could not remain long enough to take a view of the various ancient and modern curiosities of the neighbourhood. Its appearance is not very prepossessing, and the old stories about the dangers of an adjoining wood did not improve my opinion of it. Colonel Eckermann, with his massy stables, which he seems to have built with the idea of their remaining several centuries after the day of judgment, may appear to the good folks of that country a pleasant sociable entertaining man; but neither he nor his stable could detain me. I had again assumed my character of pedestrian, and had seated myself in the wood for the purpose of washing my feet in a little stream. "What are you doing there, good man?" called a long-bearded Russian to me, as he passed. I could not exactly recollect the answer in Russian, and while endeavouring to do this, my appearance was probably singular enough, for I was stirring the cold water with my naked feet. "My God!" said he to his companion, "the poor man has lost his senses."

The bath had, nevertheless, an excellent effect upon my feet, and I walked with increasing activity. The estate of Baron Arps, at Waimar near Narva, is beautifully laid out: this nobleman was known, in his time, to the gentry of the North as a rich money negociator. Not far from his domain, we slept in a solitary public house, close to an old church, which was by some called Saint Peter's, and by others the Swedish church. Buildings were erecting here, and the house was full of Russian workmen, who were drinking, singing and dancing with the utmost joviality and good-humour. Two brothers particularly distinguished themselves, one of whom affectionately forced the other to swallow brandy til he was quite intoxicated. "You are no brother of mine," said he, "you're a good-for-nothing-fellow, why, you can't drink." The other poor devil had thrown himself on a bed with his full cargo, which the heroic brother would not allow, but brought him out of his retreat, and continued to follow him with the glass in his hand.

As a characteristic feature of the legal establishment, as well as the liberality which prevails among those who are in possession of power, in Livonia, I frequently observed a whip hanging against the wall. "That comprehends the law of our country," said a person to me, who perceived that I was looking attentively at the instrument. "We have no other, and need no other." These gentry speak from their heart when they say this; for they really wish that no other law existed, and generally act as if it really were so.

At Narva I did not see the water-fall; for I was again in a public carriage, and it travelled with too much speed. This is the consequence of a man's not being independently on foot. The circumstance rather vexed me afterwards: for according to the description, and the general appearance of the country it must be very fine. The Narva, as is known, conveys the water of Peipus into the Baltic, or Gulf of Finland. To judge from the situation, there must be more such unnavigable parts in the Narva or the natural canal; and it is worthy of consideration whether by breaking open and clearing different parts, the whole river might not be made serviceable for the purposes of navigation. At present it is not so beyond the town of Narva. The navigation of the river would, in this case, be the least advantage thereby acquired; for it appears to me that by breaking through the rocks the water would rush from above with greater impetuosity towards the large lake, by which means considerable tracts of land would be gained to the right and left of the Peipus, in Livonia and towards Pleskow. The morass round the lake would, at all events, disappear; and the lake would still remain large enough for the purposes of a fishery, which is the only advantage at present derived from it by the adjacent district. In Russia, greater works than this have been undertaken, and successfully executed. I merely throw this out as a hint, the practicability of which can only be ascertained by more minute investigation.

Gamburg does not become a place of consequence, notwithstanding exertions on the part of the late governments, and its advantageous situation on the river. The surrounding country is barren, and how can large towns flourish in a desert? If no other unusual circumstances interfere, towns will only be found to increase in proportion to the cultivation of the country. The rigid mode in which the duties are collected is also detrimental to the progress and prosperity of such young colonies. According to my conviction, Russia should allow a free unfettered trade for at least the next century, and would find her advantage in such a measure, for what she lost in one article she would gain in another doubly; and such a liberal policy could not fail

to be advantageous to general cultivation. Neither would the crown be thereby much injured in its revenues; and surely the government should not refuse a small sacrifice for the general good. The principal condition of a new arrangement might be that all foreign articles should, as far as possible, be imported in Russian bottoms. But then again a prosperous extent of shipping is not to be expected without personal freedom. In other states, where cultivation is much more forward, and the inhabitants must be supported by their own great exertions, far other notions prevail on the subject of trade than those of Russia.

Koskolowa is the only good inn between Narva and Petersburgh, with the exception of a few post-houses. This country is certainly poorer than Livonia, yet it has a better appearance. The houses are not such dismal smoky dens; they have in general cheerful windows, which here and there exhibit neat workmanship and are painted; chimneys too are frequently to be seen. These improvements speak in favour of the noblemen whose estates are contiguous. But the principal reason probably is, that many Russians live here; and they are always more industrious, and will not suffer themselves to be reduced to so low a state of degradation as the Livonians and Esthonians.

We took the road of Ropscha and Strelna, in preference to that of Krasno Selo. Strelna, where the castle of the Grand Duke Constantine is situated, lies pleasantly enough between Cronstadt and Petersburgh. Cultivation evidently improves after leaving Cronstadt. From Strelna a great number of country houses may be seen to the right, which belong to persons of distinction at the capital, and for the last six versts to that place an uninterrupted chain of them extends on both sides. No great city in Europe possesses, within my knowledge, such a vicinity as Petersburgh can boast on this side. It is, however, only on this side; the others are from circumstances not near so full. The entrance into the city itself is not so grand by land as a person is apt t expect after such a display of magnificent villas; but the approach by water either up or down the river is striking and perhaps unique. He who has been upon the Neva above and below, and has taken a few walks on the quay and the banks of the river, may with truth assert that he has seen the most magnificent part of Petersburgh, and in every respect the one most deserving of notice. I do not, therefore, think that Englishman the silliest of eccentrics, who, having read an account of Petersburgh, set sail from London, arrived, examined the quay and the balustrades at the Summer-garden, stepped into the boat again, and returned home. To behold this new and powerful capital, then, in her greatest splendour, it is necessary to come by water, which I did not. I had this

advantage, however, that the city constantly improved upon me, which of course could not be the case with those who see it first from the river.

It is not much in my way, as you know, to be astonished by cities, provinces, men and their splendor: but where any thing great and good arrests my eye, I look at it with respect. My mind seldom rises to a pitch of admiration; but on this occasion it did. I reflected that where palaces and monuments now stand, which may be boldly reckoned among the greatest to be found, where crowds of people now jostle one another, where luxury and magnificence now prevail, and where a colossal power has fixed its throne——there, but a century ago, was nothing but a huge morass, with the huts of a few fishermen. This is surely great. And good too? That is another question. It will perhaps be Alexander's lot to make that good, which is already great. Should he atchieve this, he will himself be greater than his ancestors. Petersburgh is larger than Vienna and Berlin; and is become thus large in a single century. The Russian, in the warmth of his patriotism, deems it better than Paris and Rome. In this he is right, but only to a certain extent; when the great work shall be completed, he will be quite right.

It is to be lamented that when such noble opportunities occurred for the exercise of real taste, it should have been found wanting. There is not in Petersburgh a single church, which possesses the perfections naturally expected in an edifice of that description at such a place. The church of St. Isaac is in its exterior appearance a heavy ill-formed heap of marble, on which science would now be thrown away. The church which they are building has the disadvantage of being too near the canal, and consequently must have a damp foundation, even if its appearance be improved by the removal of the neighbouring buildings. As far as can be judged from present appearances, it will be large and showy; but simplicity joined with the sublime and beautiful, I have not yet been able to discover. Nothing but a blind national partiality can make any one imagine that it will rival St. Peter's at Rome. The quay on the Neva is unique, as far as my knowledge extends; and the pillars on the balustrade of the Summer-garden are perhaps only to be equalled, either in ancient or modern art, by the columns of the Pantheon at Rome. The shaft of some of them is formed from a single block. Paris can shew nothing equal to these; but I do not, on that account, assert that Petersburgh is a finer city than Paris. It is so in particular points; but on the whole Paris certainly excels it, and Rome is superior to both; principally from the grandeur of its ancient remains.

It is to be wished that the Summer-garden were bounded on the other two sides as it is on one by the Michaelow Palace, and on

the other by the Neva, even if it were not on the extensive scale of the latter. The Castle Place at Petersburgh is undoubtedly the finest and largest in Europe, whatever may be said against its want of uniformity. The grand parade held there is in every respect superior to that in front of the Tuileries at Paris, whether we consider the number and appearance of the men, or the manner in which the whole is conducted. If there be better warriors on the Seine, it is only because they are animated by a better spirit. I have examined both with attention, and speak without prejudice according to my conviction. I have been highly gratified at beholding that amiable handsome young man the Emperor Alexander, while he has fearlessly and with an open friendly mien devoid of ostentation passed to and from parade through an immense crowd of mingled classes and nations, without its being necessary that any one should have a ticket of permission to be near him. The Castle Place has indeed lost a considerable part of its size from the promenade formed round the Admiralty; yet is it still the largest that I have seen in any city, not excepting St. Peter's Place at Rome. Even this promenade was an undertaking which at other places would have excited astonishment. The mere labour of levelling, and raising the ground so as to pass over canals, was a labour which would have been attended with considerable difficulties in other capitals; and I even now can hardly conjecture how such a number of the most beautiful lime-trees and of so considerable a size can have been collected in so short a time, and in such a climate as that of Petersburgh. The stems of them are all guarded by moss to a considerable height against the inclemency of the atmosphere; besides which they are securely propped, and tended with great care. In a few years, under such management, this will certainly be one of the most beautiful walks to be met with.

He, who stands at the gate of the Admiralty, and looks to the three principal points of perspective, certainly enjoys a view, which probably cannot be equalled in all Europe. The Newsky prospect is the most extensive and handsome. This street is so broad that the Emperor Paul caused a fine walk of limes to be made through the middle of it for those on foot, and yet three large carriages may conveniently pass together on each side of it. There are several other streets, which are not much narrower. The Million, formerly so famed, is now hardly accounted one of the principal streets, much as it is distinguished by the splendour of several buildings here and there. The inhabitants of Petersburgh, like all other patriotic enthusiasts, are more proud of these beauties than they have any occasion to be. " Is not this the largest and most beautiful

street that can be imagined?" was a question put to me. "Yes," was my answer, "it will be so, when finished." The folks stared at me, and I was obliged to point out that the irregularity of the buildings destroyed any magnificent effect. I was asked where such effect then existed. "The Toledo at Naples," answered I, "consists entirely of buildings formed according to the nicest rules of regularity, all of which are at least equal to the handsomest here, and some of them still more so. The side of the haven at Messina too is, even in ruins, as handsome and large as the best street in Petersburgh."

I grant that these remarks were not very polite, but they were true, and in answer to questions not sought by me. By the way, I will here observe that perhaps all Italy cannot produce a street equal to that near the harbour at Messina even in its present state. The Field of Mars, as it is called (between the Marble Palace, the Michaelow Palace and the large and small Summer-gardens) is, to be sure, diminutive compared with that at Paris; but it has the advantage of being in the centre of the city. The brazen statue of Suwarrow at the end of it is certainly not a good specimen of the art according to ancient rules, yet it is not to be absolutely despised, as some persons pretend. It was a mistaken notion, like many others on the part of the Emperor Paul, after Catharine's undertaking, to erect another statue of Peter the First, in which he aimed at expressing the character of calm magnanimity, and failed. The effect is harsh, cold and forced. The inscription too is far-fetched, and by no means to be compared with the other. On this we read, "To the father of our forefathers"—on the other, "To Peter the First, Catharine the Second."

I had just entered into a pleasant friendly discourse with my landlord and friend, when a tall solemn man entered with a countenance mournful and abounding with character. He threw his hat and stick carelessly upon a table, and silently walked several times up and down the room. It was Klinger, and he was just come from the empress. "Gentlemen," said he, in a tone of heartfelt sensibility, "Schiller is dead!" It will be long before Klinger can make himself dearer to me than he was from the tone with which he uttered this, though he could not have brought me more unwelcome intelligence. It breathed the true sympathy of one worthy man when speaking of another. The grand duchess Maria of Weimar had not lost a moment in communicating the mournful tidings with every little attendant circumstance to her mother at Petersburgh; and never probably was one of their national poets so universally lamented on the banks of the Neva as Schiller. How great, then, must

be the sorrow of his relatives, his friends, and his grateful country!

At this time I began to enter into a dispute with myself how I was to pass the remaining part of my summer. I should have liked to proceed along the Bothnian Gulph, and traverse the country northward, that I might at the end of June have seen the sun at midnight from Torneo. But it was too early—I should have been obliged to take too hasty a leave of my friends on the Neva, and besides could not have taken a trip to visit those at Moscow. Now it happened that I would rather see my friends there than the sun at midnight, which I hope the latter will forgive, as I can perhaps take another opportunity of paying my respects to him. I packed in my old knapsack as many articles as I thought I should want, obtained a post-pass, took my seat in a *droschke*, and proceeded by way of Zarsko Selo to Sophia. There I found that I had been directed a wrong road, and should have turned off to the left at six versts distance. The landlord too, according to his fixed regulation of stages, would supply me with horses to Little Russia, but not to Moscow. My Jemtschik or hired driver would not on any account be persuaded to take me another stage towards Moscow, and at length demanded for the use of his lean nag and half-broken vehicle four rubles, after bringing me only eleven versts. This exorbitant Jewish trick galled me not a little, and the people seemed to think I was in their power, and must pay their demand at all events. But such was not the case. I threw my knapsack over my shoulder with an air of defiance, and walked boldly forth towards Ischora, a spectacle which appeared to the inhabitants singular enough. At Ischora the postmaster squinted at me and my equipage from every side; but on shewing my post-pass, he granted horses without hesitation.

And now I had to encounter such a road as no description can convey an adequate idea of; and it continued almost without intermission to Moscow. It seemed to be composed of the very roughest materials which could be collected, and the carriage which was intended for a post-*kibitke* was nothing but a strong open car fastened close upon the axle-tree, which caused it to shake the whole frame violently at every jolt. I requested to have some hay or straw; but it was rarely to be met with; so that I could only place myself in the least inconvenient position, and submit to my fate. The common Russian seems to have bones of iron, and drives furiously forward over deep ruts and large stones, without asking or caring whether the traveller is in pain or not. On such an occasion it is necessary to be provided with belts and trusses. I fixed my hands in my sides with all my

might, and held my breast-bone fast that it might not be broken. When I had proceeded a few stages in this manner, the carriage, except in a few cases of very violent concussion, seemed easier in some degree, not because any improvement had taken place in the road, but because I was more inured to it. In point of decay, I can now compare myself with Shakspeare's tanner, and should probably last you still longer, from the toughness of my hide. I understand that the Russian couriers have a dread of this road, and call it according to their idiom, *le tremblement de cul*, an expression which the nicety of the French language only allows, unless it were rendered into Aristophanic Greek, in which case it might perhaps be equally well understood by the term Pygisma. The couriers, however, defend themselves against the roughness of the road by strong broad girdles, and a leathern seat which they strap to the carriage, and which is to be bought at Petersburgh for ten rubles. This I did not learn till I returned.

At Ischora, an old woman took a seat in the carriage without ceremony, and talked as long as the rattling of it would allow a single word to be understood. The good dame made bitter complaints against the hard times, and consoled herself as well as she could by swallowing nearly a bottle of brandy during the journey. At the next stage I met with a young man, who was going my way, and proposed that we should travel together, which I gladly agreed to, for it would, at all events, supply me with society. We proceeded, each with a horse and half; as we only used three between us. His luggage too was convertible into an easier seat than I before had. He left me at Novgorod, and with him the fine weather.

LETTER V.

PETERSBURGH, 13*th July*, 1805.

ALREADY returned from Moscow, and on the point of leaving Petersburgh too! This argues too much expedition for a well-regulated tour. Granted. I make no claim to regularity; and I dare say you are always glad when you reach the end of my narratives. At Novgorod we can now only see the extensive field of former grandeur. The castle seems to be a relic of the times of the Hanseatic League, and is of great extent. At a distance the town has an appearance of consequence, but when examined, it is rather a desolate spot. There is no want of churches; but lamentable dearth of good populous streets. There are on all sides so many large bare places, that I almost believe the in-

habitants might grow their corn and all other provisions without going out of the gates. Whither are the times flown, when the proverb existed: "Who can withstand God and Novgorod?"

At Bronniza I dried my clothes, and proceeded.

At Krestzy I joined an officer of Cossacks, who with his long-bearded friend and brother, a common Cossack, was ordered to the province of Caucasus. We travelled together, though in different carriages. The Cossack endeavoured to inspire me with some fears as to the safety of the road, and in general did not speak very favourably of the Russians. Whenever he saw, or thought he saw any thing improper, he piously observed, "Ay, these are Russian manners." According to his ideas, justice, reason, liberty, and honesty, indeed Paradise itself, were only to be found in his native country, which his long-bearded servant the private always confirmed with great gravity. He had, however, a general knowledge of the army and the generals, of whom he recited many anecdotes. I must do him the justice to say that his opinions were on several subjects rational and sound; indeed he seemed to be a very humane worthy man. His health was not very good, on which account I travelled somewhat slower; and yet I travelled from Petersburgh to Moscow, a distance of a hundred German miles, in less than five days.

The country between Petersburgh and Ischora is in a tolerable state of cultivation; but from the latter through Tosna to Podborre, almost a hundred versts both on the right and left are covered with wood, which made the road solitary and tedious. At Podborre, where some hills shew themselves, the country opens on both sides, and at Novgorod, it becomes, especially towards the river on the left, tolerably pleasant. I wish the buildings, which give this district a cultivated appearance, were not cloisters. It is wearisome and unpleasant to travel so many miles on the main road, without any by-roads attracting your eye; a certain sign that cultivation is in a very backward state to a considerable distance. I have much greater pleasure in seeing a solitary humble cottage here and there than the stately convents, which are supported by these cottages. Near Saizowa and Krestzy the country is in an improved state, but no where in a really good one. It is true that there are several large and handsome villages on the road; but only a small portion of land is appropriated to agricultural purposes, and woods are to be seen on all sides.

I had the good fortune to see the country people in a tolerable district, engaged in the celebration of their Whitsuntide feast. All was mirth, joy, and jubilee; but in no instance did I see

any impropriety of conduct, if I except a few oaths peculiar to the country, which were not of the most delicate nature. The dress of the happy people was very cleanly, and exhibited good taste; in several instances it was rather costly. There is indisputably no dress more inconvenient and devoid of taste than that which is worn by country women in most of the German provinces. The young Russian boors, on this occasion, stalked along in the full sensation of their vigour, as if they would storm a battery directly, were it necessary. Few countries produce a race so lively, courageous, and athletic. All gave way to mirth, and the national propensity to drinking was in several instances very conspicuous, but without any of the bad consequences which are elsewhere to be dreaded. I neither saw a battle, nor heard a dispute. In Podborre, two lads were supporting a grey-beard, whose legs failed him. "Well, father," said one of them, "to-day you're drunk too." "I drunk?" answered the old schoolmaster with the look of Silenus, while he leaned on the other lad, and stroked his long beard, "I'm not drunk." "Why, you can't walk," rejoined his accuser. "Not walk, my boy! Well this is a feast day, and a man may be a little top-heavy, but drunk I am not." Thus he reeled on, with his two supporters, to the great entertainment of the rest.

It is a blessing to be again among men, who have the courage to feel that they are men. The villages here are, to be sure, all built of wood; but they are handsome and large, exhibiting an appearance of comfort. The gable-ends stand chiefly towards the road; the windows are cheerful and the roofs project, to guard the building from the weather. I have seen several boors houses standing square to the road, with eight neat windows in a row, half of which were ornamented with white curtains. Most of them have a balcony one story high, which gives the whole front a lively gay appearance. On some of these balconies, I have seen busts of the present emperor and empress.

Jaschelbiza is itself on high ground, and yet from that place there is an uninterrupted rise to Sigomore, or Winter-mountain, by the road of Walday, among the hills, which take their name from it. These hills are the most populous district between Petersburgh and Moscow. An unfavourable report was made to me of it, but I cannot subscribe to the truth of that report. Even at the foot of these hills, I was welcomed by the note of the nightingale, and other birds that enliven the groves of my native land. I must confess that the effect on me was powerful; for I had very seldom heard this since I left Germany. I met with good water here too, which I had not found for some time. The

climate was, to be sure, cold on the heights, but the villages were numerous on every side, and by no means despicable. I can remember several points, from which I counted eight villages in sight, which had never before been the case, since I entered Russia. I was pleased with the humanity of my driver, who was a native of the neighbourhood of Simogore. It was a cold cutting morning. The name of the district speaks for itself—Winter mountain. It is somewhat higher than our own near Dresden. I had nothing but my usual clothing, having, while at Dorpat, trusted too much to the mildness of the weather. I made no complaint; but my good Russian from Simogore brought me a large bundle of straw, and a warm sheep's-skin coat. The man's friendly conduct made my heart within as warm as my body, and we drove rapidly past some lakes straight down to Jedrowa.

Between Krestzy and Simogore, and also beyond the latter place, are a number of small conical hillocks, such as are also to be seen in various parts of Germany. They are apparently raised by human labour, and the inhabitants of the district merely tell you, that "the ancient great people lie under them." They are probably in Russia, as with us, the burial-place of some great commander, or of several warriors, who fell in the same battle. In modern times too it has been customary, after battles, to bury the dead in this manner.

In Russia, the traveller takes no money but paper and copper. The latter is as troublesome as the former is convenient, especially to any one who is not very attentive. I had changed a note at Krestzy, and had received as part of it, a heavy sack containing eleven rubles in copper. This I placed on the floor of the carriage. The postillion, soon after, by my permission, took up an old man from Petersburgh, and a girl from Torschok. He drove with neck-breaking fury; and at the next stage, when I wanted to pay for some refreshment, the great purse of copper was gone. At first, I was somewhat out of humour, and formed suspicions as to my associates; but when I found a large hole in the floor of the carriage, which had been evidently made by the weight of my treasure, I acknowledged the honesty of my companions, and laughed heartily at the adventure, congratulating myself on the loss being no greater. The people stared at me with great astonishment, when they saw me so jocose upon such a subject; but surely a loss of this kind is not worthy of much vexation. I abused the postillion, for putting me into such a crazy vehicle; for which abuse, he received five copeks more to drink away the lecture.

Wischney Wolotschok is known as a town of commerce by its canal; nor is Torschok devoid of importance. All the stages beyond these places, are far from being unpleasant.

Twer has the advantage of a very good inn, where the charges too are very reasonable; and this advantage is a greater comfort to the traveller in those parts than you perhaps suppose. The Volga produces good fish here, and you may be sure that I took care to be supplied with them. Near Klin, is a very pleasant change of hill and dale, perhaps the best on the whole road. Here I ate with hearty appetite, the last piece of a couple of roasted woodcocks, which my good hostess at Petersburgh had packed in my knapsack. I remarked here, that the horses were small, and the carriages not unlike those in Lithuania and Esthonia. Beyond Pesky, which stands on a bleak eminence, the road was pleasant enough at intervals, to the last stage Czernaja Grahs, which name signifies Black-mire. The weather and the appearance of the street fully justified the appellation.

The finest entrance into Moscow, is over the hills from Pleskow, on the opposite sides of the city. The whole of this great ancient singular capital is seen from this point to advantage; whereas, on the Petersburgh side all is level, and woods both on the right and left obstruct the view. On the left, at a distance of a few versts from the city, stands the new Imperial Castle, which has more the appearance of a large citadel, than the palace of an emperor. At the gates of the city, I took leave of my companions the Cossacks, who continued their journey. Having advanced a few rubles for them on the road, I supposed rather precipitately, that I should be repaid in the style of a Cossack; and had accordingly resolved to take no notice of the debt, but the worthy man dischargad it very honourably. My postillion now drove me up and down a multitude of streets, till we reached Nicholas-street, where I alighted at a German inn, opposite the Greek Cloister, to which I had been directed at the last stage, but where, except the landlord and tapster, no one spoke German.

The soil near Wischney Wolotschok is sandy; with this exception, the country between Petersburg and Moscow, is all capable of great improvement by diligence. The next morning, I sought my former friends, from whom as well as from others, I received such patriarchal hospitality, that during my stay of a week, I eat nothing at my inn, except breakfast once or twice; and to all appearance such would have been the case, had I remained there eight weeks, for the circle of my acquaintance was continually increasing. It is my custom, in common with Kuttner, always, when I can, to climb the heights for the sake of prospect. I went, one afternoon, to the top of the tower of Iwan Weliky, where you have a kind of prospect, which is not to be seen from the Pantheon and Montmartre in Paris. Moscow is considerably larger in circumference than Paris,

although the number of its inhabitants is much smaller. This tower stands on a small eminence near the river, andin the middle of the city; besides which it is the highest of any, so that from this spot you can overlook all the surrounding beauties. It is constantly open to the public, and is guarded above by a single centinel, who is relieved from below. It must certainly have been a most rare and magnificent scene, when last year a storm gathered on the left side of the town towards the Imperial gardens, and burst in three loud peals of thunder, while at the same time, in an opposite quarter of the city, the sun shone in all his splendour, and Garnerin ascended into the air amidst the shouts of hundreds and thousands. At the foot of the tower, lies, at a considerable depth in the earth, the well-known large bell, and a few hundred paces from it, stands under cover among several others, the equally well-known large cannon, a curiosity which so forcibly struck a Gottingen surgeon, who was going to reside on the estates of the Prince Kurakin, that he considered the moment when he saw it as the happiest of his life, to which he added, that of having written his name on the great bell. Indeed! thought I, and at this moment, I grant that I was not without fears for those who happened to be ill on the estates of Prince Kurakin.

In Moscow, there is a singular mixture of New Grecian half oriental appearance, and of the more modern improved architecture of Italy. The most curious fabric is the cathedral, which, in point of gold and precious stones, probably excels every other church of Christendom. All the internal ornaments are of solid gold. Most of the images are indeed, for the honour of the art, best concealed by this metal; still there were some, of which I regretted that the gold hardly allowed me to see the nose. If that be *nimbus*, it certainly is no where so thick as here. St. Peter's at Rome is a pauper compared with these saints.

The other treasures of the Kreml, namely, its valuable antiques, were locked up on account of some repairs, and to inspect them a special permission must have been obtained from the governor general, about which, I did not care to trouble myself. There was one article which I should like to have seen, and this was the bell of Novgorod, a greater curiosity to me, than any other of the huge bells at Moscow, Erfurt, or elsewhere. This was the bell with which the mighty lords of the Hause roused the warriors of Novgorod to arms, and the sound of which was, for a long time, terror and death to the Russians. That was the period when the proverb originated, "Who can resist God and Novgorod?" After the final reduction of the city, this bell was naturally brought to Moscow, as a trophy of victory, and is now properly looked

upon as a national curiosity. I was credibly informed that at the commencement of the present emperor's reign, an order was issued, through the representation of the governor general, that all the useless heavy articles, which only tended to fill the state buildings, and convert them into lumber-rooms, should be sold. Among the rest, the bell of Novgorod was to share this fate, had not the commandant of the Kreml opposed it with his utmost force, and threatened to defend it by his grenadiers, till a special order for this particular purpose should be obtained of the emperor. His majesty, on the matter being explained, commanded, as you will naturally suppose, that the bell should remain in its present situation. The commandant was a brave worthy man, who dared to do what seemed right, at the risk of any consequences which might result from his mistake. If an alarm were to be sounded, the bell of Novgorod would not be wanted. This Alexander knows, and acts in such a manner that no one will ever think of sounding any against him.

The Foundling Hospital at this place is an institution, with which, probably no other of the kind can be compared; and extensive as is the establishment, the most exemplary regularity appears to pervade the whole, as far as I could judge from a short visit. The buildings are in a tolerably open and healthy situation for a large city. One of the superintendants assured me, that the institution possessed at present a fund of twenty millions, and had above thirty-six millions in circulation; the whole of which has been amassed from private contributions.

The Hospital, founded by the family of Golizin, is perhaps on too splendid a plan, for the invalids actually have sumptuous treatment. Almost a hundred are there provided for; but the establishment seems principally intended for the higher orders; persons, indeed, of moderate circumstances, would here be absolutely spoiled, and might adopt the notion of never being well again as long as they lived. The apothecary's offices are on a better footing, than I ever saw elsewhere; and the chapel is remarkable for taste and propriety. From its cupola, there is a most beautiful view, and the buildings are all in an excellent open situation. The steward of the house was a very polite friendly man, but the want of memory on the part of the physician seemed to me rather extraordinary; for on our enquiring what kind of patients occupied one of the rooms, he repeated the enquiry to an attendant. I hope that this was only want of memory.

One day we crossed the Moscow, and ascended the heights called the Sparrow-hills, where the vegetation is very luxuriant, and the country not inferior to many a district of Switzerland. From these hills, we commanded a prospect of the whole valley

in and near which the city is built. It is quite an amphitheatre, and one of the most striking you can imagine. Those, who are well acquainted with local points, can distinguish every thing, even to the other side, where the imperial gardens and the German suburbs are. I enjoyed here a moment which was dear to my feelings, and which can occur but seldom. There are, I am told, nearly six hundred churches in Moscow. The churches are full of towers; and the towers full of bells. I counted seven towers on many, and it is rarely that one is to be seen in Russia with fewer than three; on which account, the true believers began to smell heresy, because St Isaac's at Petersburgh had but two. It was a fine clear still afternoon, and a gentle breeze floated over the city. The following day was to be a festival, and the eve of it was now to be celebrated by every church in the city. Fancy what a sound would be created, when I tell you that some of them have more than twenty bells: but you cannot—nor can I give you any idea of the stunning effect; it reminded me, as it would you, of the dreadful day at Warsaw, when bells and cannon joined in concert.

The Moscow is here about as wide as the Tiber at Rome, or rather wider than the Saal at Bärenburg. In our party was the counsellor of state Schubert, who is going with the embassy to China, in the capacity of astronomer. It is long since I have seen a young man, who combines so much useful knowledge with so much modesty and polished manners as his son, an officer of the general staff, who accompanies his father, and promises to become under his guidance an ornament of society. The violence of the motion, on my journey from Petersburgh to this place, had broken the spring of my watch, which was no wonder, when I travelled in such a vehicle; for I now learnt that the same had occurred to Schubert and another officer, though they were in an English carriage hung on springs. The watchmaker at Moscow honestly told me, that the same must happen as I returned, and advised me to defer the repairs till I reached Petersburgh again, which I accordingly did.

Many of the old buildings of the Kreml have been taken down, and others erected more in conformity to modern taste. The government-house stands pre-minent in this respect. The only ones, which will probably remain for many centuries to come, are the tower of Iwan Weliky, and the cathedral. The Kreml can no longer be considered as a fortress, though it may still be considered a good post in case of insurrection, as it stands on high ground. Since the last attack of the plague, there have been no disturbances in this city; and even these are known to have rather originated from the fanaticism excited by the unhappy times than from any discontent as to

the government. The public here are indisputably the richest and most liberal on the face of the earth. There are, to my knowledge, several families which possess an annual income of about 500,000 rubles; some have still more. The court has very little influence on the old capital. The people at Moscow care little what is going forward at Petersburgh, except in those families, which are connected with some branch of administration.

The university here is, like the one at Dorpat, in its infancy, though much longer established. It also meets with more encouragement, as the Russian nobility is much more refined and liberal than the Lavonian has yet shewn itself to be. Demidow and Urussow have presented their choice collections to the museum of the university, and Fischer is at present engaged in the arrangement of them. They contain treasures and rarities of all kinds and are particularly rich in serpents. It is intended to make an advantageous exchange of the duplicates for other curiosities, and connections have been formed in every quarter for this purpose. Fischer is known to be a man competent to the task he has undertaken, and will not be wanting in diligence and application. Goldbach is obliged to build his own observatory, for which a very convenient and pleasant situation is allotted in the botanic garden. The old and new professors live together, as I observed, in good understanding with each other; and the rector, who had secured his office in perpetuity, has been obliged by the new regulations to resign it, that an annual appointment may be made by a regular election. The old gentleman, who has the credit of being a good pedagogue, and writes very curious Latin, made a few wry faces on the occasion, and defended the possession of his office not ill by declaring that no law could have a retro-active operation; he was compelled, however, to yield to the united votes of his brethren, the authority of the curator, and the letter of the law. A Russian literary journal has been established, to which the new professors contribute their labours in foreign languages, and these are afterwards translated under the inspection of some person conversant with the subject. Of course a few *quid-pro-quos* now and then occur; but they merely excite a laugh and are forgotten. The university contains at present about two hundred and fifty students, among whom many are stipendiaries; a very small total number for the chief city of such an enormous empire. It is, nevertheless, better in this respect than it was twenty years ago, when there was not half the number of students, though Moscow might then be called the only university in Russia. The new professors are tolerably satisfied with the previous attainments of the young men, who all ex-

press themselves respectably in Latin. Buhle told me that he has had sixty auditors; but several of them did not belong to the university, as private persons were in the habit of attending his lectures. Almost every one likes to hear a discourse on philosophy, if well delivered. The professors, who came from Germany, are unanimous in their praises of the friendly reception and kind treatment which they experienced from the Russians as well as Germans long settled here, and this from all ranks. They can also, as they themselves report, live comfortably and in tolerable style on their salary of two thousand rubles, as most of the necessaries of life may be had at Moscow on reasonable terms; far more so than at Dorpat, where the population is limited, and consists of either very rich or quite poor persons, and where any article not of the most common kind is either unattainable, or only to be procured at a very high rate.

Karamsin was in the country, consequently I could not see him. If he be not an historian, he is still an interesting worthy man, and a good poet. I formed two other desirable acquaintance, Pause, a man deeply versed in literature, and Heym, who has distinguished himself by his knowledge of the Russian language, and is here the oracle of foreigners, often too of the Russians themselves. Both are good-humoured cheerful companions.

Klinger went on one day to Dorpat, and I on the next to Moscow. Schubert departed for Kasan on one day, and I on the next for Petersburgh. The roads soon informed me where I was, and I had only the consolation of knowing that my watch could not be put out of order again. This time I so far travelled alone, that an old man or woman, whom I now and then allowed to be taken up, were my only companions.

At Gorodnaja, where I was very thirsty, the people brought me a beverage, which they distinguished by the name of free-beer— thus called, because they had themselves been allowed to brew it, which seemed to cause as much delight, as if every one of them had gained a fortune. Such a good-natured grateful creature is man, when some uncommon impulse of justice procures for him one of his original natural rights. Those entrusted with the government of a country may have weighty reasons connected with the welfare of the state for enacting particular limitations in certain branches of trade, the unlimited exercise of which might be detrimental to society at large. It must, perhaps, be allowed, that brewing falls under this description. But the practice, which prevails in several parts of Germany, where whole communities are absolutely compelled to procure their beverage from this or that particular brewery,

and are thus supplied with the most miserable article at any price which the vender chooses to affix, is an oppression bordering upon slavery, and, with respect to its influence on the constitution, indefensible. But who consults his conscience on such occasions? The treasury must be supplied, the bayonet glitters, and reason must be silent.

As I entered Twer, a young man was seated with a party not far from the Volga, and sung in a pleasing voice the old French air, "*Oh Mahomet, ton paradis de femmes est le sejour de la felicité.*" I forget whether you know the music—it is one of the liveliest airs ever composed even by a Frenchman. The notes were still vibrating on the drum of my ear, when I arrived at the gate, where the centinel treated me with a counterpart, which he bellowed loudly forth, and the burden of which frequently repeated, was droll enough, after what I had just heard: "*I ya schenilsa kak durak.*" I took a wife, and was a fool.

Between Twer and Medno I scarcely did any thing but ruminate on the dissimilarity of these songs; and as I had no occasion to travel at the pace of a courier, I suited my convenience by fixing my quarters for the night at Leipzig; for on entering Torschok, the sign of the City of Leipzig held forth its friendly invitation to me; and indeed as I went to Moscow, I had made up my mind that this should be a resting-place as I returned. The sign seemed to indicate that the house was kept by a German, but I did not hear a word of that language. By this, however, I lost nothing; for a good-humoured waiter provided me with every thing as good in its kind and as reasonable as I could have expected at Leipzig on the Pleisse.

At Wydropusk, I sustained a small loss, which caused me much pleasure. I have a very handsome seal, the execution of which is in Döll's best style, and for which, with the setting, I paid thirty dollars. This had by some means fallen from my watch-chain into the body of the carriage. It was natural that the loss could not be quite a matter of indifference to me, either on account of the value of the gold, or workmanship. I examined every thing as I thought, and found nothing. A number of stout Russians stood as usual round me. "I'll give any one two rubles, who brings me the seal again," said I, and went into the inn. The fellows directly began their search amidst much clamour, and turned every article over and over. At length, a shout announced their success, the seal was brought, and I paid my two rubles for it. I know that much may be said against the certainty of the transaction being as honest as it seemed; but it pleased me mightily, and I feel on such occasions and so much at home with the people, that I do not like to

leave them. It was doubly agreeable to me that these were common Russians, on whose honesty it is not usual to hear a panegyric.

Nothing had been heard of my bag full of copper, as I returned through the country where I had lost it.

The landlords of the post-houses are here only called in general postillions, and the men who drive *post-fellows*. The latter are boors; the former imperial officers, and often, as it appears, also boors. The driver is content with ten copekes for *drink money;* but what appeared to me most extraordinary was, that the post-masters also asked for *drink-money*. This custom began at Novgorod, and continued almost regularly through to Moscow. I must, however, allow that fifteen or even ten copekes seemed to satisfy them; still I could not reconcile it to my notions of propriety and honour that I should give the post-masters *drink-money*. Between Novgorod and Petersburgh no such application was made to me, which I was very glad of, both on their account and my own; for I disliked the meanness of the transaction exceedingly. If it be necessary, let the fare be raised, and the owner of the horses thus remunerate himself; for certainly no one can at present complain that the price paid for the use of post-horses in Russia is high. The dearest article on the whole road between Petersburgh and Moscow is probably coffee, which I took now and then medicinally, because I was travelling in the night, which otherwise chilled me. A common quantity cost in general a ruble, and in some instances ten copekes more. Sometimes, too, the landlords had, as they said, no copper to give in exchange for paper, and I was obliged to obtain it of the shop-keepers, they always deducting ten copekes for each note, which is absolutely lost to the traveller, and is, I understand, illegal; but, like many other illegal acts, it cannot be easily prevented.

On my return to Petersburgh, I found myself in very bad credit as to my expedition in travelling, for the Russians hurry over an immense tract of country in an almost incredibly short time; and in spite of my boasted activity, I found that in point of speed, I could not enter the lists against them.

Klinger was also returned from Dorpat, and you will easily believe that I availed myself, as far as possibility and propriety would allow, of his permission to be as much with him as possible; you will also believe that at these interviews, philosophical, literary and political discussions took place often enough, and that I reckon these hours among the best of my life. That we were not always of the same opinion follows of course, as well as that we both defended our own with tolerable obstinacy. When good men think alike as to main questions, it is the

seasoning of life to dispute a little about smaller considerations. Klinger was extremely gratified by his journey to Dorpat, which I was glad of, as well on his own account, as that of the institution and literature in general.

On St. John's day, according to the Russian calendar, I went with my host and old acquaintance Beck, the counsellor of state, to Pawlosk, principally for the purpose of calling on Storch. Beck introduced me to the Countess Lieven, who is governess to the imperial family, and whose son the general was a friend of mine in Poland, which I hope he still is, though it is long since I saw him. This lady has very properly gained the good opinion of all by her education of the amiable daughters of the imperial house, and I found her possessed of so much pure, friendly, affable, female character, that I almost forgot her connection with the court, and only fancied myself in the society of a worthy matron.

When sitting at table with the family of M. Block, a message was delivered that the empress mother would see me at her villa about seven o'clock. This was unexpected enough, and a glance at my dress added to my momentary confusion. Of course, however, I soon recollected myself, selected my best attire, and appeared at the stated time and place. I had received several hints as to the necessary ceremonies, to which I paid little attention, thinking that each step would easily be regulated by the preceding. The empress conversed with me nearly half an hour, at first about myself, my petty tours, and literary labours. Having heard of my attachment to the Greek authors, she particularly asked me why I had not undertaken a journey to Greece. "Through Italy, France, and Russia," answered I, "a man may travel with expedition, security, and pleasure; but to wander into Greece, as Greece *now* is, would be in every respect out of my power. Besides, I am not exactly an antiquary, or strictly speaking a literary man; but merely study the Greek authors for my own improvement, which I can probably better effect from the treasures of that nation at home, than if I were to visit Athens or Sparta."

The empress asked me many questions relative to Schiller, (whose death was still the conversation of the town,) and spoke with great respect of his writings, criticizing with such propriety, that even Schiller himself, had he heard the observations, would doubtless have profited by them. As I had always been on the most friendly footing with him, I could speak of his character with real warmth. "To me he appeared most amiable as a parent," said I, and related to the empress the circumstance of anxiety respecting his little daughter not allowing him to remain a few days longer in the circle

of his Saxon friends. He hastened to Weimar, and when I visited him a few weeks after, he appeared at his door with the little girl in his arms, and said, "Look, this is the little silly thing, that would not let me stay quietly with you." The child clung affectionately to his neck, and justified his assertion. This little narrative seemed not unpleasant to the empress. She made several remarks relative to our literature, and with a precision, clearness, and knowledge, which would probably have soon embarrassed me; for the empress has naturally more time and better means of reading and instructing herself than I have. She had perhaps heard that offers, and these rather tempting too, had been made to induce me to remain in Russia, and asked why I would not do this. I with great truth informed her, that my principal objection was an aged mother, whom I had left in my native country, to whom nothing would be an equivalent for my settling at a distance, and who, at her advanced period of life, would not be persuaded to forsake the spot on which she had grown old. "Your majesty," added I, "will give credit to the motive, as you are yourself a mother." "Nothing whatever can be said against it," answered she, with evident satisfaction.

Before I went away, she requested me to take a ride through the gardens, and ordered her attendants to shew me the villa. In all houses, whether they be palaces or huts, the inhabitants are to me the most interesting objects. Such was the case here. It is generally and justly supposed that there is no royal house in which more affability, goodness, and humanity prevail than in the imperial family of Russia. Even the late emperor Paul, as all impartial persons assure me, had the same turn, and enjoyed the entire affection of those connected with him, whatever might be his eccentricity and mistaken notions upon other points. Storch, as you know, has described the gardens at Pawlosk, after which it would be needless and improper for me to enter into a detailed account. The scale is rather a large one, the plantations are fine, the views and divisions laid out with taste, and the ornaments appropriate, without superfluity. Whatever the climate would allow, has here been effected by diligence; and no expence has been spared. As a curiosity, there are a few Italian poplars; but they must be defended against the severity of winter, by huge wooden cases and straw. They are the only trees of this kind, which I saw so far north. I cannot, therefore, conceive how Acerbi saw Italian poplars at Kengis, far beyond Torneo. He must have made a mistake in the kind. The group of Graces, which is the best ornament of the sort in the garden, appears to be by Canova. I could not learn this to a certainty, even

from Storch; but I do not know any other modern artist who could reach the execution.

In the palace, a small cabinet was to me the most attractive, though it contained but four paintings, a Belisarius, a Prodigal Son, a Madonna, probably by Raphael, and a Vernet. Paul's Family, by Kügelgen, in another room, will perhaps be hereafter a family piece of the greatest value. The artist certainly possesses much merit, and the likenesses, according to the testimony of all acquainted with the imperial family, are uncommonly striking.

Storch pleased me more on personal acquaintance than through his writings. I suspected him of studying to adorn his subject; but he really and enthusiastically believes all he says. He is actually convinced that Alexander will create around him the Paradise, which a warm imagination beholds. No one can more fervently wish this than myself; no one will more sincerely rejoice at it; but hitherto I have found it impossible to be convinced of these fine things. The obstacles are gigantic. If he succeed in establishing solid boundaries of justice, he will have done more than Peter the First.

The music in the chapel at Pawlosk particularly attracted my attention. It is the only church music which I ever heard in my life, possessing the pure character of solemnity, dignity, and devotion. In our churches, a musical passage is every moment occurring, which makes me fancy myself at the opera-house, and consequently inspires an improper sensation. Nothing is more sacred to me than real pure religion; and the more sacred to me the more seldom I meet with it. The merit of having adapted the music so happily to the purposes of religion, belonges to a single man whose name has escaped me; but I revere him in as high a degree as Mozart, whom I esteem the best composer out of the church.

The other day, I received a ticket of admittance to the family-theatre of the empress, at which a French opera was to be performed on the birth-day of the grand-duke Nicholas. The performers were come from Petersburgh. The selection of music was but indifferent, and the singing not unexceptionably good. I was most pleased with the friendly intermixture of society, if I may so term it. It was only a family festival, at which the whole imperial house was present, accompanied by all who held any office at court, and as many persons of decent appearance as had opportunities of procuring tickets. Every thing had an appearance devoid of constraint. The emperor came, sat, and walked away without any guard. Not a bayonet was to be seen. There was merely the usual number of police-officers at the doors. This is a confidence which is sure to gain its end.

I did not go to Gatschina, because I had not time; though to judge by the country it is probably the most interesting of all the imperial palaces, except Peterhof. The greatest magnificence prevails at Zarsko Selo, as I am told; but of this I myself am hardly a judge, as I seldom bestow the necessary attention on any thing of this kind. To the artist this palace is interesting, because it contains in a kind of portico almost every good production of the Russian artists, whether original or copied. Having been built by the first Catharine, and enlarged as well as inhabited by the second, it is perhaps the most remarkable place of Northern Europe.

Peterhof has more charms to the lover of nature, and to those of a romantic turn, even if it be forgotten that the greatest man of the North in modern times here formed and executed the plans of his creative mind. In point of situation I should prefer Peterhof to Versailles, if the rigour of the climate were not so intense. Every moment a spot occurs, where Peter the First had favourite object, where he arranged his serious concerns, and enjoyed his recreations, where he saw his fleets increasing under his own inspection from day to day. Here may be seen the little room, in which his mighty plans were conceived—plans afterwards executed too; but whether to the advantage of his subjects and of mankind, or not, would be a very problematical question.

The most remarkable vestige of Peter's manual labour is probably the small house at Petersburgh, on the Neva, and opposite to the Summer-gardens, in front of which also lies the boat said to have been built by himself. I never saw a finer vessel of its kind, so proper and excellent are all its proportions, and it seems still to be in such good order that it might be made to float again with little trouble.

The Hermitage at Petersburgh was in the same state as the Kreml in Moscow. Some building was going forward; and every article was locked up. I could not, therefore, see the treasures of art; yet these were perhaps more worthy to be seen than any thing else in Petersburgh; for there are, I understand, some admirable paintings among them, if not so many Raphaels as national pride asserts. Kohler was as friendly as could be expected from a friend of the Muses; but the sanctuary, nevertheless, remained closed to me. Voltaire's library, which I might have seen, did not interest me so much. It would have been otherwise, if I could have commanded time to study in it, as I should have been rewarded for my trouble by seeing how the old Satyr of Ferney principally employed himself.

The antiques in the Taurian palace do not appear numerous

or remarkable for curiosity to those who have seen the Paris collection, and the best in Italy. In the large garden-saloon, about which, however, fame makes more noise than it deserves, some good articles were standing. I was, however, not allowed a minute examination; as preparations were making for a great festival. A foreigner can hardly wander through the beautiful walks of the garden without calling to mind the singular man, who for a considerable time acted his part here, and was in a great degree the despot of the North. Potemkin shares the fate of all remarkable characters. Some think he was both a great and a good man, while others can discover neither. The latter are certainly more mistaken than the former. The emperor Paul had no reason to like him; but his resentment went so far that he annulled many good regulations in the army, to all appearance only because they were introduced by Potemkin, who was admirable in his military arrangements, and selected them from those adopted by different nations. He learned much of the Scotch, who are indisputably excellent soldiers.

I was gratified by the manner in which I was received by Suchteln. Scarcely was my name announced, ere he approached me with open arms. "Ah mon cher camerade de malheur, soyes bien venu! A present nous sommes un peu mieux, qu'a Varsovie il y a onze ans."—"Beaucoup, beaucoup, V. E. grace au ciel!" said I, and he led me by the hand, and introduced me to the company. You know that this is not what I pride myself on; but it is gratifying to meet with such a friendly reception. Thus acts the man of real worth and open affability. I cannot say that I was equally successful when I called on General Igelstroem at Riga. I announced myself merely for the purpose of paying my respects to the old gentleman as my former commander. I could have no other motive.

He allowed me to stand a considerable time in waiting, and at length sent word he was ill, and would see me when he was better. His surgeon and nephew had both before assured me that he was well enough to receive me. I went, and naturally did not call again, for I had no intention of paying court to him. There was a time when he confided to me all the secrets of his public situation and private circumstances, a confidence, which I never abused—when I have sat and worked for weeks together at his bed-side—when he treated me as a confidential friend, and employed me in drawing up the papers by which he justified himself to his sovereign. I shall always defend his character against any attack, for I never knew him guilty of a bad action. At present, he seemed not to be commander in chief of his family.

It was with real sorrow that I now openly heard at Petersburgh

two articles of intelligence from my native country, which occupied my mind more and for a longer time than I could have thought possible. The one was the great want of bread; the other, that the elector had granted to the owners of estates, in return for their ready obedience in some matters, the liberty to depose the judges of their manorial courts at their option. Both these circumstances gave me a degree of uneasiness, for which I cannot blame myself. I have often and loudly declared that our government pays little attention to the possibility of famine, and that if the crops were any year to fail, we should be in a much more pressing emergency, and greater danger of hunger than in the year seventy of last century. Every one wishes to gain and hoard money; as if money alone could produce national prosperity. After the death of Fredrick the Second, a pious reliance on Providence seems to have induced our rulers to leave almost all the magazines empty. This species of piety I hold to be very reprehensible. The elector of Saxony, who is certainly one of the most just and liberal men in Europe, is the private owner of almost a third part of the country, and ought, by proper management of his estates, to have the market-price of bread in his power. But as the rent of the farmer is raised to its utmost height, of course no conditions can be laid down as to the sale of his produce, since he must by one mode or another obtain the stipulated sum; so that under this pretext the basest avarice has a wide field for action. The result may be inferred without any superior sagacity. All other owners of estates and country gentlemen pursue the same system. It is true that the articles sold, produce gold; but the sellers are few in proportion, and the greater bulk of the commonalty both in towns and the country must necessarily suffer. This engenders on both sides a hateful animosity, which may be productive of mournful consequences. I soon, however, happily heard that rumour, as usual, had materially magnified the dearth in my native land.

With respect to the second article, the courts of justice, people talk openly of it with merited censure even in Petersburgh. While they are labouring here to establish a more solid system of justice, it appears that in Saxony attempts are making to destroy it. That a private man had already the power of appointing a judge even in his own cause did not exactly agree with the most correct notions of justice; but if this private man shall have the further power of displacing this judge when he chuses, the liberty of the German peasantry will soon be reduced again to the degraded state of the Esthonians and Livonians. The judges were, alas, already dependant enough on their patrons; but now they will be completely their creatures. It requires more strength of mind spirit than is the usual lot of human nature to oppose

the wealth and power for the sake of a third person; and thereby perhaps bring beggary on ourselves and families. Such is the general opinion of impartial persons at Petersburgh, and I lament that I must join in it. Heaven grant matters may prove better than I have heard!

I took an affecting solemn walk in the church, where the bodies of all the princes who have reigned since the founder of the city are deposited. The coffins stand exposed to view without being let down into any vault. I walked up and down before them, read the inscriptions, and reflected on the great changes which had taken place since Peter removed the seat of government hither from Moscow. I am no moral sentimentalist, but I could scarcely refrain from shuddering at the idea that I was now standing among the remains of potentates who had ruled over a nation, which not long ago rose from the chaos of night with Herculean strength. I had already several times felt peculiar sensations when at the Michaeloff palace. Here I paused at the coffin of Paul; that good, misrepresented, unfortunate prince, would in private life have certainly been one of the most amiable of men, and who, like many others, tottered beneath the enormous weight of a diadem. From all which I have learned respecting Paul; he was certainly a monarch who wished what was right, and such a man is from that wish a good man. He was, according to my conviction, in spite of all that is said to the contrary, physically and morally an invalid. All the portraits of him, not one of which is devoid of interest and not one quite unlike him, declare this. Even at the very idea of irregularity and injustice he was forcibly and even convulsively affected. When he himself could hear and decide upon a case, perfect justice was sure to follow. The irritability both of body and mind, the consequent mixture of tenderness and rigour, the boundless submission to and yet mistrust of the opinion of others; and many other contradictions in his character must be principally accounted for by the circumstances of his youth. He had at first viewed mankind in a false light, and one misconception followed another. The unfortunate state of the times added to the illusion. Had he lived a few years longer, the danger would only have assumed another appearance, and it becomes doubtful which side a man like Paul would have taken. The impartial perceive in several instances the good effects of his severity. It excited fear, and made some at least, through fear of him, keep within the bounds of moderation. It seems unfortunately as if the mildness of his son would again open a field to the insolence of petty despots. The public again speak freely of military oppression, family influence on the decisions of justice, and striking neglect or ar-

bitrary proceedings in the police. The place, the time, the names, and all the circumstances are mentioned to prove that a process may be carried through the senate for a stated sum of money; and if all is to be believed which is asserted by very upright persons, there remains in the highest tribunal an open system of bribery, which is shocking. There can, from circumstances, be but little justice in the world; and when that little is to be sold for gold, philanthropy almost compels us to look round for the way out of the temple. It is natural that the emperor Alexander should shew this propensity to clemency; for what an appearance would it have if a young man, on his first outset in life, should exhibit the austerity of one perfectly acquainted with the world? But it will be necessary for him to dwell with firm unshaken determination on the execution of solemn measures, and I trust this will be done. Affability and kindness, and natural benevolence form his present character; but as a monarch, he will probably often find it necessary to be more severe and inexorable.

One of the stories of the day was the execution of the criminal of Dago, who for several years played the part of Cacus on his island, and by his piracies brought ruin on many. The life of this man was one which, even in the barbarous times of Hercules, would have been remarkable for its villany. The process, which began in the reign of Paul, had been so long protracted, that it was suspected that, through the influence of his family connections, the senate would not pass a very rigorous sentence. It is said, indeed, that a mild one was already prepared to be laid before the emperor, when he was accidentally requested to sign that of a young man who had forged bank-notes to the amount of some hundred rubles.

"That is hard, that is very hard," the emperor is reported to have said. "Is this the law?" "May it please your majesty, it is," answered the reporter.

"Then I cannot help the unfortunate man; but I shall now be anxious to see what punishment will be decreed for that villain of the Baltic." The reporter, who observed the deep solemnity of the monarch, did not venture, as I was told, to submit the sentence in the state proposed; and it was afterwards, from motives of policy, altered in the senate as to severity, and executed. I give the anecdote as I received it from persons of credit. It does honour to the emperor's character; for mercy towards a villain is certainly injustice.

In speaking of the imperial family without constraint, the Russians joyfully give them throughout a character of humanity and goodness; with the exception of the grand-duke Constantine, who is here and there loudly censured; and there are even persons who have a bad opinion of his principles. After all

that I have been able to learn of him, I cannot believe this; But it must not be denied that an unexampled violence of disposition, sometimes, it is said, exercised beyond all controul, gives him a temporary appearance of greater depravity. He was, on account of his vivacity, the favourite of his grandmother, and it is easily to be conceived that maternal tenderness would see many an error of youth in a milder point of view than a commom observer. His family loves him without exception, a proof that he must possess natural goodness of heart. He is, however, almost beyond all measure overbearing; and this propensity has led him to steps, of which I would willingly ascribe half to the misrepresentations of malice. It is to be lamented that a young man, who is really well-informed, should thus be in danger of sacrificing his better character to the levity of youth. The consequences are already visible. He is avoided from a fear, which each entertains, of becoming the sport of his boisterous humour. The companions and assistants in his youthful frolics are laying on themselves a heavy responsibility. They must lose his regard, as soon as he arrives at serious reflection, and, on a calmer view of things, feels the necessity of possessing the pure regard of the rational, instead of the riotous applause of wild debauchees. I have only been once near him, when he delivered his orders to an officer in a manner so violent and unbecoming, that had I been in the officer's situation, I should certainly have requested my discharge the next morning.

The botanic garden of the Academy is better conducted than it used to be, and the gardener appears to be a worthy active man, who is at home among his plants, and in his Linnæus. It seems to me a peculiar kind of economy, when the Academy is so rich, that the greater part of the garden should be let out to green-grocers and growers of culinary plants; so that the science, to which it is destined, is thereby confined within a very small space. The leases too have, I understand, been renewed for a longer term, since Alexander came to the throne.

I left Germany, as you know, half and half inclined to obtain an audience of the emperor; and petition for a small pension, which I conceive that I have deserved, and might conscientiously accept. I had, however, almost given up the idea on the road; and I found the emperor so much engaged by the critical state of affairs, and so closely besieged by business of a nature certainly not the most pleasant, that it did not occur to me to take any step towards this object. It would probably not have been very difficult to attain my point; but on closer examination I found it better to live as long as I could by the exercise of my own faculties. This accords more with my notions,

though I am, nevertheless, certain that no gold and no earthly honours could ever influence any of my opinions.

For several days past the object of universal conversation has been the incorporation of Genoa and the recall of the ambassador, who was going to Paris for the purpose of adjusting the disputes. This will probably be the prologue to another tragedy. The conduct of the French is a natural consequence of their knowing their own strength and the weakness of their neighbours. Justice is out of the question. In national arrangements she is seldom consulted, and is complaisant enough to look wherever the bayonets point. One thing, however, pleases me. The Corsican has royally avenged his native island on her modern and ancient oppressors; and so wretched is the spirit of the times that all this must be considered as an act of favour.

"Le peuple n'est rien pour qui le sait mener."

Bonaparte proves the truth of his position by his own example; a great example truly, and one which carries with it a severe rebuke on the human understanding. "I shall give you to such or such a prince," is the answer which he is said to have made to the humble representation of the deputies of the free imperial cities of Germany. Never was such contempt exhibited towards the nation and its princes. The donor, the receivers, and those who are given away, all stand in a peculiar light. On this occasion a passage in Plutarch occurs to me, where Metellus the tribune of the people is described to have placed himself before the doors of the Treasury, when Cesar wanted to make use of its contents towards his war against the senate. The patriot positively refused to quit his station, till the followers of Cesar tore him from it. "Reflect," said Cesar to him, "that it will be much more difficult for me to say than to do what is harsh." To do any thing harsh towards a man, was an euphemism of the day, meaning the axe of the lictor, or the dagger of the assassin. I could not avoid an involuntary parallel. Harsh words do not seem to be so difficult to Bonaparte. I admire him as a really great man; but it is impossible that I can love him; for I neither think him liberal, nor just. He has in his own person destroyed the finest idea ever formed by my imagination; and I am proud enough to believe that my speculations are not the idle dreams of a romantic brain. Fate has given him two names, the one prepossessing, the other terrible. He bore the prepossessing one during his better days; he has now laid it aside, and retained the terrible one. But the eternity of Bonaparte the Preserver will, in defiance of the astonishment excited by grandeur, be better and more desirable

than that of Napoleon the Destroyer. For my own part, I shall prefer retaining the former name. Terror shall not dwell in my soul—I willingly resign the terrible one to the diplomatists.

LETTER VI.

SIPPOLA, 28*th July*, 1805.

I WILL here bet my excellent piece of salmon out of the Woxa, and a whole basket full of Mamurami, that you do not know in what part of the world Sippola lies; and neither Büsching, nor Schlözer, nor Gaspari can assist you. Observe, then, Sippola is a neat little village in the northern paradise of the Laplanders, Russian Finland, situated out of the road, somewhat to the north, between Wilmanstrand, and Friederichsham. I have not measured the longitude and latitude of it, and can, therefore, only say of it that excellent berries grow there, that the corn still waves its high tops, and that the poetic wanderer might still cut here a good oaten reed for a pastoral pipe; which is probably more than you expect in the vicinity of the Laplanders.

Of the theatres at Petersburgh I saw none but the Italian, which is probably the best. There was a singer in the company, whose equal I never heard. He is said, however, to receive an annual salary of fourteen thousand rubles; and for such a sum a little clearness, strength and compass of voice may be expected. I did not go to the German theatre, because all my friends agreed in stating that very indifferent pieces were very indifferently performed there. Mire lost the management by his own want of conduct; and something better is expected from his successor, who is described as a man of taste and knowledge. I did not see the Russian company, because I was first here, then there, and always let the time pass. I am now somewhat sorry that this was the case; for the performers are, I understand, excellent mimics, and act several national pieces with much life and spirit.

On my departure, M. Pinnow kindly presented me with some correctives of bad water, and a party accompanied me in several carriages as far as Pergola, where with a mingled and peculiar sensation I spent the last evening with my friends resident in that country. I am always fancying that I have long since settled accounts with that unknown something—the heart; yet the sprite is every moment playing me some trick or other. The beautiful little exhibition of fireworks, with which some officers quartered here complimented the general on his birth-day, helped me through the sad reflections of the last hours. Who knows whether

I shall ever again see the good people here, who gave me so fraternal a reception? The carriages returned to Petersburgh at a late hour—I stowed the provisions, furnished by northern hospitality, in my travelling knapsack, and took up my abode with a Finlander. My mind was full of emotion—the room was heated in July and full of smoke—I fancied that I every moment heard a dozen Tarakans, and slept—not quite so well as usual. It was, moreover, the season, during which there is, in these northern regions, no night, and I always feel as if I could not sleep but in the night. Here, however, it is so like the day, that my friends and I have without difficulty, while walking at midnight in the gardens of Petersburgh, read the Hamburgh newspapers to each other. "Trans Suionas," says Tacitus, "aliud mare pigrum ac prope immotum, quo cingi cludique terrarum orbem hinc fidas, quod extremus cadentis jam solis fulgor in ortus edurat, adeo clarus ut sidera hebetet." It darkens them so much that I really could see no stars at all. The evening twilight melts into that of morning. For a few nights this appeared to me very pleasant; but my eye was soon weary of the continued light, and missed the charming change of summer nights in my native country.

The next morning I cheerfully pursued my way past the old fort towards Wiburg. The three days between Petersburgh and Wiburg, a distance of twenty miles, were very fatiguing to me; for the weather was insupportably hot. The perspiration flowed from my forehead even more freely than when I stood so many hours with the battalion under arms, and worked with hands and feet to the sound of the drum.

The water of the Neva would not suit my palate at Petersburgh, do what I might. It is clear as crystal, but beyond all conception soft, and I have been always accustomed to hard water. The finer kinds of malt liquor are too strong, and the rest are almost all brewed from noxious materials, particularly wild rosemary. More attention ought certainly to be bestowed on this by the department of government to which it belongs. My resource was in different kinds of quas, or wine and water, when I could not obtain quas or kisslestschee. I had, however, anticipated the pleasure, which I should derive from a good draught of the Finland streams; for I knew that Finland was mountainous, and naturally concluded that where I found mountains, I should also find plenty of good water. In this I was much mistaken; for although Finland is almost one entire bed of granite, yet is water very scarce. In travelling the whole twenty miles from Petersburgh to Wiburg, I only found a single little brook of good water, and a few versts from the town some very fine copious springs, which to me seemed to

produce real nectar. The other streams all proceed from morasses, and consequently furnish foul, red-coloured, disgusting beverage. The granite is perhaps too hard to receive the rain. It runs off, therefore, to the moors, where it stagnates, and becomes almost useless. I have sometimes laboured, perspired and thirsted for hours together, till at length necessity has compelled me to swallow some of this nauseous liquid, at the same time holding my nose to avoid its effluvia. I one day ran up and down a dale at the foot of a chain of hills, panting with thirst, yet making myself certain from the nature of the country that there must be water at hand; for an old pilgrim can, like Moses and Alexander, hit upon these discoveries at once, without exactly any pretence to the gift of prophecy. At length too I really found a small spring under the hollow trunk of a tree, and was, as you may easily conceive, delighted.

At Wiburg, after I had arranged every thing with the police, I betook myself to the Italian inn. There was nobody at home but a little girl about six years old, who first looked fearfully at me, than sobbed, and at length cried outright. "There's nobody at home," said she. "My father's at Petersburgh, my mother's gone out—you must not stay here." Heaven knows what a horrid cast of countenance I must have! The same thing has often happened to me, and on this occasion the more kindly I thought that I looked at the girl, the more loudly she cried. At length I calmly laid my knapsack on the billiard-room, and waited the event. The lamentations of the little girl now brought a taller one, a kind of waiter, who at my request immediately shewed me into a tolerable apartment. This, after my three days pilgrimage without any convenience, was agreeable enough; for from Pergola to Wiburg the only place worthy of being called a village is Krasno Selo, not the same through which I passed in going to Moscow, though bearing a similar name. The rest of the road is thinly strewed with solitary huts. As I entered Krasno Selo towards evening, the whole village was in alarm and uproar, not exactly arising from a revolution, but from the appearance of a bear in the neighbourhood, Every one seized his gun, or spear, or pole to welcome the shaggy guest. Two soldiers persuaded me to accompany them a few versts further to Nowa Derebna (New Village) and at the small public house there I really found a room, which was light and pleasant for Finland. In Esthonia such a place would have been a rural Louvre. After I had treated the soldiers with an omelet, I quietly laid myself down to rest under a sheep's-skin coverlid, which I found there upon a mattress, as I supposed for my use. I could not secure myself from interruption; for the people here

are very patriarchal, and have no locks to their doors. I had slept a few hours soundly away, when a fellow jogged me, gently enough I allow, considering that he was a Finn. "What do you want, friend?" demanded I in Russian. "To sleep here," was his answer. "But I am already sleeping here," returned I. "But this is my bed," said the man. What was to be done? We made a fair and friendly agreement to share the materials of which the bed was composed. I left him the mattrass, took the sheep's-skin, and quartered myself in another corner of the room on the floor, after I had properly bound my ears against the hostile tarakans. The tarakan is the northern tarantula, a kind of insect much dreaded—that is to say by the *beau monde*, for the common man cares but little about it. A larger species of them is called Prussaky or Prussians; and the good folks are firmly convinced they were brought from that country to this by the army during the Seven Years' War. The stories on this subject are ridiculous and entertaining enough. The next morning I had nothing but silver to pay my bill with; and my old hostess would not change a ruble without a discount which reduced it to eighteen copekes; and I being so good-natured as to submit, she at length gave me only ten, with the assurance that she had no more copper, and that a ruble here passed universally for no more than fifteen copekes. I was glad of that, even if the beldam told a falsehood, which I do not doubt. The emperor Paul endeavoured to carry his point, by rigorous ukases, and paper gradually became of less value. The emperor Alexander lets the matter take its own course, and now it only sustains a loss of twenty-five per cent. At Moscow and in its neighbourhood but little paper is to be seen, and silver is almost universal; but paper is on the same footing there as at Petersburgh. I am surprised at the mode in which the copper coinage is conducted in Russia. Such is the value of it that great trouble is every where necessary to prevent the coppersmiths melting it down again. It might be sold to greater advantage than it is coined. The motive for such conduct I can by no means comprehend. Perhaps copper is so cheap in some of the coinage-towns deeper in the empire, that it is thought but reasonable to issue it as at present.

I had not yet risen at Wiburg the next morning, when Mr. Tappe, professor of the newly established gymnasium, called to take me home with him. As I had purposed to remain a few days in Wiburg for the sake of my feet, which were sore from the effects of heat and exercise, I with pleasure accepted his invitation, and fixed my abode with a brother in Apollo.

Wiburg, which was formerly almost quite composed of wooden buildings, has been, since the last conflagration, almost entirely rebuilt with stone, and has a neat appearance. It is pleasantly situated, the country agreeable on every side, and to me particularly so for furnishing good spring water. The entrance to the town from the sea must be attended with some difficulty; but the haven is on that account the more secure. The trade of this place has materially decreased since the crown limited the felling of timber and sawing of deals. This restriction, however, seems to be requisite; for I saw but few good timber-trees on my journey. The present are small and weak. But the principal complaint made with respect to the prohibition, and one which seems to be not without foundation, is that every one is obliged to pay the full mill-duty, though at most places no deals are allowed to be cut. There is at Wiburg a peculiar branch of trade, which I acknowledge to be productive towards the finances of the country, though I cannot think it ultimately consonant with state-economy, any more than the cultivation of tobacco. I allude here to Cichory, which the Prussian consul M. Hartmann has, if I am not mistaken, cultivated for some time to a great extent, and derived a considerable profit from the sale of the substitute for coffee made of it. I am not sure that this should be preferred to the growth of grain and potatoes, especially as a want of bread is here common, and arable land not very abundant.

The richest literary man by profession on the continent of Europe, is probably the poet and rhetorician Nicolai, who has removed hither from Petersburgh, to enjoy the age of repose as philosophically as possible. Monrepos, an estate not far from the gates of the town, which belongs to him, and at which he resides, is one of the sweetest little places in the whole North. Nature appears to have made it a fairy residence for some beneficent spirit; and the present possessor has for several years been adding to its charms. He lives there with northern liberality, and enjoys the regard of the whole neighbourhood. It is no trifling pleasure to hear such a man converse on the literary and political occurrences of the North.

From this place I took a trip to see the waterfall at Imatra, where the Woxa, for the length of half a verst, in some parts dreadfully steep, forces his passage through a narrow bed of granite. The appearance is unique in its kind, and made a noise more stunning than I experienced either at Schaffhausen or Terni, though the water was at this time low. The Woxa is here somewhat broader than the Elbe at Aussig. The Saima, from which the Woxa and some branches of the Kymen proceed, is a medium between lake and river, studded with many groupes of picturesque islets, which make an appearance, es-

pecially near Wilmanstrand, not inferior to a Switzerland district. Its source has not yet been correctly ascertained, but it is said to be in the most northern part of Norway. The water is uncommonly clear and pure, but quite soft like that of the Neva—no wonder, for it helps, through the Ladoga, to form the Neva. There are several waterfalls lower down, where it discharges itself into the Ladoga; but none of the same consequence as that at Imatra. I staid all night with my companion M. Purgold of the Wiburg Gymnasium, a young man of much talent, on the banks of the river not far from the water-fall, and returned next day by Wilmanstrand.

All the towns in Russian Finland are fortified, by which the country assumes throughout a warlike appearance—perhaps more so than is desirable. The Finlanders, when compared with their brethren in origin the Esthonians on the other side of the gulph, are an open, polished, worthy nation, whose characteristic is, however, not the most determined energy. The whole country has rather lost than gained since the Russians took possession of it, a phænomenon easily to be accounted for. Nevertheless, a degree of culture and personal comfort prevails here, which is in vain sought for in the country near the Dwina and Embach. The peasant there will probably gain little by the regulations apparently for their good, and really so intended—here, he is in danger of every day losing more. Of the despotism and oppression practised by the imperial agents, and those possessed of power, revolting examples are every where related. Catharine the Second always suspected the Finland peasantry of an attachment to Sweden. This is not surprising, when they are thus delivered up to oppression. In Sweden humanity prevails, and all goes well—here they rule with the whip, and all goes ill. For instance, a boor not long ago was unable to obtain a trifling cessation of labour, though he only wanted to bury his father. It is hardly possible to trample more shamefully on the rights of human nature. Thus little can a prince effect, who is himself the genius of benevolence.

Here at Sippola I am standing on the point of a rock, and surveying in the vale beneath me four small lakes, whose banks are surrounded with hamlets, meadows, and fields of waving corn.

Finland is one enormous bed of granite, intersected here and there by beautiful and cultivated vallies. This, I am told, is the general description of country to the Gulph of Bothnia; only that the Swedes are, from political and moral causes, more orderly and diligent. The country all round this place abounds with fruits of different kinds, some known, some otherwise. Among

the latter are the above mentioned Mamurami, a sort of small red berry, which are famed for their aromatic flavour, are esteemed as the northern ananas, and are in great demand among the epicures of the metropolis. They grow no nearer to it than here and in Siberia; and the Russians distinguish them by the name of Knäschniky, or Prince's berries. You will understand, therefore, that they are something more than common bramble-berries, to which, however, they in other respects belong. My host, M. Dähn, counsellor of state, and inspector of schools in the district of Friederichsham, a friendly and very intelligent man, does every thing possible to make his guest satisfied—and truly satisfied he is.

Tomorrow I again take my pilgrim's staff, and trudge by Friederichsham to New Kymenegorod—then further by Aberfors to Abo and Upsal, in order that I may at least see the saloon in which Linnæus delivered his lectures.

I shall bring our friend Werner of Freyberg a piece of red Finland quarz, which is esteemed a curiosity here. Whether it be really so, the cognoscenti must determine. The governor-general Meyendorf, whose lady was treated, during her visit to our country, with the attention due to her merits, has sent it as a testimony of his respect and gratitude, and intends to add some other rarities of this country.

I am at present studying the Swedish language with attention, that it may assist me in my tour through that kingdom. Towards the end of October at furthest I hope again to see my native country, which after all is a pleasant little nook of land. Friendship and greeting!

LETTER VII.

Abo, 5th August 1805.

I HAVE been in a melancholy mood lately—how it happened I hardly know, except that I looked too often back upon my past experience and forward to future prospects. The Swedes are by no means to blame, for I am thus far much pleased with them, and really believe that if I were rich, I should employ some years in travelling among them.

Let me connect the thread of my wanderings. From Sippola I returned to the main road at Friederichsham, and after a good meal pursued my way on foot. It appears to me as if all the towns in Russian Finland were in a sinking rather than a rising state, without the country-parts gaining any thing thereby, a certain sign that there is something wrong in the management of affairs. In Sweden, to the joy of

every honest man, the contrary is the case. Slavery and a property established in human flesh are the mildew, in which every thing withers, and through which only troublesome and noxious insects are produced. The country, which has been rather hastily compared with Switzerland, is universally pleasant, and I have not met with a single spot where the idea occurred to me, "This is dismal—I should not like to live here;" which has been the case in some parts of Germany.

A few versts from the fortified town of Kymengorod, a large arm of the Kymen produces a fine waterfall, when the river, in a very romantic situation, not far from a church, rushes through three fissures in the rock to a depth of several fathoms. The surrounding scenery is truly picturesque, and in Switzerland the place would be celebrated. At Kymengorod the citadels and military works are in a state of considerable forwardness; but the town itself is very little improved. It can only be said that a beginning is made in this respect. On the other side of the water more has been done. The situation of the citadel appears, however, to me rather extraordinary; for not far from it is a high rock, from which it may be not a little annoyed; and this eminence itself is, from the nature of its neighbourhood, not very tenable. But if the town will but flourish, the citadel may be easily spared; and the best defence at all times consists in brave fellows, who are ready to defend their country with the bayonet in the field.

A young officer of the garrison, who was taking a walk, joined me near the river, and civilly asked me whence I was come, and whither I was going. My appearance and speech probably both struck him as foreign; for I speak the Russian language ill, and that of Finland not at all. The same was his case as to French and German. One word, however, produced another, and I asked whether Suchteln was yet arrived. He did not even know that he was coming; but I assured him that I knew it from his own lips at Petersburgh, and further that M. Zagel of Wiburg had engaged accommodations for him at that place. The young man looked oddly at my knapsack, when he heard me talk so familiarly of Suchteln and Meyendorf, and examined me, but with perfect politeness, about my travels. I gave him a sketch of my present intended tour towards home by way of Stockholm, and he took a hasty but friendly departure, probably to acquaint his colonel with the approach of his commanding officer, for whom I suppose no preparations had been made beyond Wiburg.

It was near sun-set when I sauntered past Kymengorod The public house there had not an inviting appearance, and I continued to proceed onward in hope of finding a better, till I heard to my no small embarrassment that the next was twenty

versts distant. It had been rather late when I left Friederichsham, I was then tired, and was naturally growing more so. The wood grew thicker, and the scenery wilder. The heat had been oppressive all day, and my feet began to refuse their office. I was hungry, and the provender in my knapsack was at an end. I had been glad to meet from time to time with a little tolerable water. As I could not reach any house, and proceeded with difficulty, I at length turned on one side into the wood, and laid myself quietly down to rest on a block of granite not far from the road. The sky above me was beautiful; only that on this account the air was somewhat cold, as is usual there at night. In the North a man travels without fear of man, which cannot be said of that holy land Italy. I had therefore nothing to be afraid of but wolves, which even in summer sometimes wander out of the thickets in search of prey. My want of sleep was, however, stronger than my fear of wolves; and I enjoyed a profound repose of several hours till awaked by the cold. I now put myself again in motion on the road, soon met with an honest Finlander, who served me with as good a breakfast as his house would afford, and cheerfully pursued my way to Aberfors.

I had a letter of introduction from Governor-general Meyendorf to the Russian colonel commandant at this place, who consequently gave me a very friendly reception. This, however, did not exempt me from a very minute investigation at the custom-house, where every thing was scrutinized even to my Aristophanes. I had changed my Russian paper for Swedish at Friederichsham; and here I received Swedish paper schillings for sixty copekes in Russian silver. At the custom-house I met with a clergyman of Russian Finland who was about to pass the boundary, and invited me to take a seat in his droschke. "*Facundus comes in viâ pro vehiculo*" says some old author. Here both were offered; I therefore stepped into his machine, and drove with him to Lowisa, the first Swedish town. I had designed to examine the last verst-post very minutely; for it is reckoned a monument of the last war, and is said to contain an immense number of balls. The most are stated to be on the Swedish side, as a proof that the Swedes shot with a better aim, the battle having raged with greatest fury near this verst-post. Our conversation, however, drove the war and its perishable monument quite out of my recollection. The Kymen or rather the arm of the Kymen has there again two arms, between which lies a small island, forming the boundary of the two monarchies. The *Questionis* bridge is therefore a double one. That over the northern arm belongs to the Russians, the other to the Swedes. None of the parties must extend his post beyond his own bridge. The Swedes, however, did this during the last disputes

which soon ripened into a war. The people here are very happy in the idea that the Kymen produces the finest salmon in the world. I took leave of Russia with a grateful heart; but I entered Sweden in high spirits.'

'The moment a person has passed the bridge every thing assumes a more cheerful lively appearance. I always look upon the country as a criterion by which to estimate the state of society dwelling there, and no where can the traveller be more taken by the outward appearance, than in Sweden, particularly when leaving this part of Russia.

There arises a singular sensation in my mind when I think of Russia. To a certainty no land can produce better men as individuals than are to be found in every part of this enormous empire. No where does the government do more for the improvement of the provinces, yet no where is so little effected as to humanization, justice, and improvement of the mind. The radical evil is, that the general principle by which the whole nation is actuated has its basis in slavery. There is in Russia no middling class of society; but only wealth and penury, magnificence and wretchedness. The spring is made from one to the other; sometimes you meet with both together, but very seldom with domestic comfort. These are the consequences of slavery. In Petersburgh and Moscow it is not uncommon for a grandee to have two or three hundred servants in his house, and be served so much the worse for it; which always reminds me of a French duke who went to call upon a poet, and found him in a very bad humour. "My God, what's the matter?" demanded the duke. "My servant is a scoundrel," grumbled the poet. "I have but that one, and I believe that I am as ill waited upon as you who have thirty."

The more servants there are in any establishment, the greater disorder will prevail. Such people become in Russia quite unfit for any other more serious employment, and hence from this class spring the greatest number of knaves and villains. Among them prevails the greatest subtilty and depravity of mind; the most wit, and the least sense. Were the probability of rational freedom, and then the hope of regular support greater, matters might be in a better state; but for such people a release from their obligations is a rarity. They, therefore, make amends for their situation by vicious practices, and their masters are not backward in setting the example. How great the hardship of such regulations are, I have had opportunities of ascertaining. Take an example. A young man possesses a genius as an artist. He studies and works by permission of his master with the best success, so that he becomes known to the public at large as a man of merit, and even to the emperor himself. It is natural for such a person to wish

that he had an independent right over himself; but that is impossible. His master, on the contrary, with whom he may have had some little difference, orders him out upon his estate to hard labour, which the poor fellow has long forgotten, or perhaps never learnt. Here no interference can be of service to the unfortunate artist. The monarch himself is too upright to infringe what are called legal rights of the proprietors. The young man must perhaps load manure in the court under the steward's scourge; or at least he may be obliged to do this, according to these established privileges. A man of humanity had a commission to make a private offer of fifteen thousand rubles for his release; for the owner would not make a present of him even to the emperor. The emperor, it was said, wished to make a present of him to the academy. In this anecdote the only thing consonant with reason is the great liberality of the Russian monarch, to which, however, the prejudices of the narrators would have given a truly slavish turn. In reality, the emperor wished to give him a situation in the academy, but not to make a gift of him to that institution. I would inflict death on the man, who attempted to make a present of me, or I would inflict death on myself; but this is a sentiment unknown to one who never in his life dared to fancy a personal ownership.

I remember that I once, under the impression of enthusiastic philanthropy, endeavoured for several hours to persuade old General Igelstroem at Pleskow, that cultivation would never obtain a permanent footing till personal freedom was absolutely established by law. The old general allowed this; but asked how it was to be brought about. That is really a difficult question. The slavery of the Russian boors has only been introduced some centuries, I forget under which czar, and then not legally but by abuse. A dangerous disease infested the country, accompanied by famine, and every one endeavoured to escape destruction by flight. A provisional temporary regulation was, therefore, made that no boor should leave the estate on which he worked. This temporary regulation was by abuse continued. A beast of prey is not likely to resign the victim already secured by his talons. The slavery of the Russians, however, has never been so heavy or oppressive as that which prevails in the adjoining provinces, Livonia, Esthonia and Finland. Courland was not in a better situation under the Poles, and all are now alike. Where slavery is legalized, justice is out of the question, and no civilization can take place. Let no one quote the Greeks and Romans on this occasion. Heaven defend us from their infamous freedom! Compared with that, even the feudal system was rational; and Spartacus has given a dreadful commentary upon it. If I were a German peasant with six sons, and had no other prospect for them but even on good conditions to make them Russian peasants, by every sacred virtue I would shoot the

whole six rather than send them thither, and become the founder of a race of slaves.

Complaints are made in Livonia that the peasants are so insufferably idle. For my part I am surprised that they work so much. Why should a slave do more than he is forced to do? Who insures to him the enjoyment of his earnings? Shall he build a house, not knowing whether he or his son may dwell in it? Shall he plant a tree, the fruit of which it is not probable that he or his children will pluck? But we are told that the law now gives him security. The law has long been established, and always despised. Men ought never to have been sold, yet even now they are shamefully bartered at every market for sporting dogs; and even the newspapers under the humane Alexander are full of these disgraceful advertisements for the sale of our fellow-men. "The fellow is mine by inheritance," says a proud young nobleman with indescribable impertinence, whose grandfather was perhaps a broker on the Dwina, or the Nava, "he is mine by inheritance, and I may do what I please with my property!" And this he sometimes does too, with an ingenuity which would reflect honour on Adramelech. History unfortunately shews that he who possesses the power to do harm is too apt to indulge it. Wherever any one possesses authority over another, independent of the state, the palladium of human nature is broken down. In Livonia, a number of infamous actions are at this day recorded, which almost surpass belief. The peasants' wives, for instance, suckle greyhounds, of course with their own consent; but what difficulty has a Livonian nobleman, armed with unbounded power, in making his peasantry consent to this, or any thing? His provision for them, too, when in want of it, ought to be commensurate. I have, however, seen blind men enough upon the road, who had their lord's permission to beg on his domain; for to be sure he could not send them into another district. Nevertheless they go. Buxhovden's boors go as beggars to Petersburgh in considerable numbers. Vittinghof's boors beg at Dorpat, at the trifling distance of thirty miles, for so far, I dare say, it is from Marienburg to Dorpat. Buxhovden, with all the appearance of humanity, is said to be one of the most rigid privilegists, and in those cases where justice (or what is in Russia called so) is concerned, liberality is not described as his characteristic. Christianity has here rivetted the chain more completely; for the clergy, in conformity to existing institutions, mostly go hand in hand with the nobility, or rather form a temporary nobility, and, to their shame be it said, often the worse of the two. The Livonians, Esthonians and Finlanders are not unjust in looking upon the Germans altogether as a kind of evil spirits, for which heaven has provided a peculiar hell in return for the devastations they commit on earth. Livonia is certainly a beautiful and highly gifted

country. The Russians seized it; and in order to restore the prosperity of the province, which was ruined by war and pestilence, the duties were not only collected with great lenity, but the country was not called upon to supply the army with any recruits. The consequence of this is, that the nobility have incomes of several hundred thousands, while the boors live in abject wretchedness, having here and there scarcely the semblance of the human form; and further that at the expiration of a century, the province, with all these indulgencies and no particular misfortune, is just on the same footing as to population, while the distresses of the peasantry are greater.

Finland was conquered at a period somewhat later, and culture had there made further progress. For this reason the Finland peasantry even now find themselves in a better situation, though the owners of estates are doing every thing possible by degrees to *Russianize*, or rather to *Livonianize* them. May the feelings of Alexander never be deadened by the heavy cares of government, may his strength be commensurate with the fatigue which his duties must cause, that he may prove a saviour of his people, and gain renown, which, after thousands of years have elapsed, shall be sacred in the estimation of posterity!

After leaving Friederichsham, the Swedish language is much spoken, and the clergy resident in Russian Finland have hitherto been principally obtained from Abo; so that the province has still retained some connexion with the parent country. The offices of government and justice are principally occupied by Germans; and in the principal towns German is the prevalent language; which has gained a still firmer footing by the new regulation, the Finland establishments of education being formally subjected to the university of Dorpat.

At Lowisa, nothing is to be heard but Swedish and Finlandish. My pastor conducted me, as my tongue was yet but little accustomed to Swedish pronunciation, to an inn where I found very respectable and reasonable treatment. I was sitting towards evening in the public room, and had been studying the Swedish language in an old translated Pepliers, which my landlord at Sippola had given me. A man of rather wild appearance took the book, which I had left on the table, and turned over a few leaves of it. "This belonged to our former Governor, Orräus of Wiburg," said he in Russian. "The name was written in it." "That is very possible," answered I, and related to him how I came by it. He looked at me very suspiciously; but soon became more friendly when the landlady had informed him that I came to the house with a clergyman.

The next day I went to Ulby, where I had an execrable dinner and an excellent bed. Balance one against the other, and all was well enough.

Borgo is esteemed a town of consequence in Swedish Finland, has a Gymnasium, and carries on some trade by a river, which is thus far navigable for small craft. From that place to Helsingfors, I found it excessively hot, much more so than I experienced near Ætna, and in Lombardy. The inns were at a great distance from each other, and by no means good. They looked neat and inviting, but in general nothing was to be obtained at them except very sour beer, very coarse bread, and very bad butter. These inns were the post-houses, and I observed that they were not kept by very conscientious people, for the posting charge was frequently added to my expences. I suppose the good Swedes thought me an eccentric kind of character, who ought to pay for his whims. The Swedish miles are extremely long, and the charge for posting is not heavy. The traveller proceeds with great rapidity, and only with a single horse when alone and unincumbered with luggage as I was. I therefore seated myself in a carriole, first to escape the heat, secondly to expedite my journey, and thirdly because it cost me no more but perpaps less than if I walked. In Italy probably these reasons would not have all had their force. At Helsingfors the landlord speaks German, and keeps a very good inn. At Swensky I even met with a postillion who understood my native tongue, and had often been on board of ship to Reval. Near Mialbosta, there are several very fine situations upon a lake, with some country-houses.

Near Sahlo, the valley, through which lies the road, opens to a considerable width, and exhibits many very small but neatly built villages, and for the first time again two churches. The barley grows here to such a height and so luxuriously that I never saw it finer unless in Catania near to Ætna. Wheat too had already reached such perfection near Abo, that I put a few large ears into my pocket-book as a memento. But the most welcome sight to me was the number of hazel-trees, which I here beheld again for the first time. Every moment increased my pleasure, and my high opinion of the economical society at Abo. The Swedes are poor, very poor. A man may travel many miles without seeing a single copper coin. Nothing but paper is to be met with even for the most trifling sum. But the Swede appears not to feel his poverty. His house is large, light, and convenient. In Esthonia and Livonia a chimney, as I have told you, is but seldom to be seen—here many a farm-house boasts four, five or six, and is furnished with good out-buildings. The Swedish Finn is cheerful and clean in his dress; his appearance betokens

strength and independence. The women are in general tall and handsomely formed; often indeed they are very beautiful, particularly in the country, where the light national habit gives them almost a Grecian appearance. Should you enter one of their neat cleanly houses, which are generally painted red, you will certainly not find the best larder in the world; but all the inhabitants seem so satisfied with the little they have, so cheerful, so friendly, and so ready to share their humble fare with you, that it must be one of over-refined notions who does not feel happy among them.

The night before I reached Abo, I slept at Wista, a pleasant village, with a church in it. The innkeeper was a superannuated lieutenant, who spoke German tolerably well, conversed at large and intelligently enough upon politics, and served up a frugal repast with much taste. When I wanted to pay my bill on the following morning, five schillings* were due to me in change for a note; and the old man had not so much coin in his whole house, carefully as he examined every chest and cabinet. I remarked that it was of no consequence, and that he need not think of the trifle; but the honour of a soldier here interfered, and he insisted upon every thing being regularly settled. I then proposed that he should give the five schillings to the postillion, instead of my paying him. He looked me full in the face, and asked how much I gave the fellow. "Why, generally," answered I, "three or four schillings according to the length of the stage—this once I may as well give five." "With your permission," returned he, "you act very wrongly, and spoil the fellows entirely. You ought not to give more than a schilling." He then went to a neighbour, brought me the money, and requested as a favour that I would not, at all events, give the postillion more than a couple of schillings, which I promised, and so far performed that I added the other two as a reward for good driving. This sum is considered as the *ne plus ultra* of generosity, for which every postillion is your humble servant down to the ground. In reality they are not allowed by law to ask for any thing, which to me appears hard; but indeed the whole regulations of posting want a reform. What a difference, however, in the above respect, between Sweden and Germany! The law with us has, by fixing half a guilder for drink-money, included liberality, and only wished the traveller not to have the power of being ungenerous; but by paying this sum, or a somewhat larger, no traveller will now think that he may be at ease either with respect to his carriage or his neck; for he must be a bad postillion who, if out of humour,

* A schilling is about an English penny.

could not contrive to damage some part of your equipage to the amount of a few dollars. I have myself been present, when half a dollar was presented to a postillion. "What's this?" asked the fellow in a grumbling half-intelligible tone. "That's yourdrink-money." The fellow pulled a long face, and said with all the blessed rudeness of the new school: "Does an honest man give an honest postillion such a paltry thing as this? Shabby enough!" Such civilities as these you may experience by the half dozen between Dresden and Naumburg. For a Swedish recompence you there travel a Swedish mile in the hour; and yet in our native land I have sometimes been seven hours in crawling over three Saxon miles.

Every Swede has here his own plantation of tobacco near his house, and in the vicinity of Abo, acres are ruinously devoted to the cultivation of this noxious weed. Even at home I cannot rid myself of an unpleasant sensation, when I see whole fields planted with it, and perceive the stupifying stench of this vegetable poison. Should famine overtake us, and the corn magazines be thrown open, they will be found full of this abominable acrid herb.

Abo contains, as I am assured, twelve thousand inhabitants, which I do not think an exaggerated statement. The number of students at the university amount to about three hundred; but as it happened to be vacation-time, and few professors being in town, I was not able to hear a lecture. The new academic buildings just behind the cathedral, will do honour to the town, even if they should not be so magnificent as the Swedes assert they will be; for according to their account the academy at Petersburgh dwindles into a hovel, when compared with them. The most remarkable circumstance is, that the pillars of granite are each formed from a single block, are finely proportioned, and beautifully finished. Still they are not equal to the pillars of the Petersburgh Summer-garden, or those of the New Bank erected by the emperor Paul. Nevertheless, the working of granite in this way is still rare among the Swedes, though at Petersburgh nothing is more common.

At Abo I took up my abode with our countryman Seipel of Butzbach, who does not, however, keep the only *auberge* in the place, as Acerbi asserts, for another was mentioned to me. His may, perhaps, be the best, though but indifferently provided. Abo can, however, boast one curious particular, namely, that there is but one barber in the whole town, as our countryman the landlord assured me; and this solitary shaver being in the country, I had no resource but to torture myself, with my own miserable razors.

The river Aurajocky is composed of bad water, and is navigable for larger vessels as high as the bridge, above which there are only small boats. Yocky or Tyocky signifies in the language of the Finns a river, so that with the additional name of Aura, it sounds quite romantic. Such is also the case with the Kemiyocky near Torneo. You perceive that the language of the Finns is not without its graces. It is, as I am told, the original, of which those spoken in Lapland and Esthonia are only dialects. No wonder, therefore, that the Livonians have met with their language in the interior of Asia.

The old castle on the Aura, at a short distance from the town, is not of much consequence. The Swedish military too speak very lightly of it. Near it and under cover lies a part of the flotilla, which so much annoyed the Russians in the last war. These vessels were probably better than those of the Russians only, inasmuch as they were manned by better seamen; for the manning of the Russian fleet partakes of the general and fundamental disadvantages arising from want of personal freedom.

Swedish Finland is stated to have at present a population of sixty thousand more souls than it had twenty years ago; and this, in so large a tract of land, is not improbable, for in every part of it the country is so highly cultivated, that I have seen nothing equal to it in Germany, Italy, or France, as to extent, taking into account the difficulties which it was necessary to surmount. Barley, rye, wheat, peas and flax had all an exceeding healthy appearance. The hemp alone was, in proportion to the rest, small and thin. The system of manuring pursued there is excellent. I must, however, observe that every one in Sweden speaks of this year's crops as most abundant. I never felt so much respect for human industry as during this tour. In some places the good people are obliged to remove whole hills of granite with incredible labour, before they can commit their seed to the ground. And surely they may feel to have atchieved a noble victory, when the sides of the hills are covered with waving corn, and only here and there an invincible point of rock juts out of the remunerating crop. Such sights are numerous in Sweden, more in one province than the rest.

Finland is considered, from its industrious exertions, as the corn-magazine of the surrounding provinces; and the high station which it holds in the universal estimation of the kingdom, may be gathered from the circumstance of all paper currency having its value stamped upon it in the language of the Finns.

My window here gives me a view into the garden, and near me stands a fine large apple tree, the sight of which afforded me at first much pleasure. In all Petersburgh, I saw but a single spot on which a few apple-trees were growing, and this

was sheltered on every side. Not a single pear-tree met my eye there; but here fruit-trees in general become more common.

LETTER VIII.

STOCKHOLM, *16th August*, 1805.

AFTER leaving Abo, the traveller is conveyed by a few stages to the Gulf of Bothnia, which he must cross, unless he chuses to go by the circuitous roads of Wasa and Tomeo. Acerbi calculates his journey in winter over the ice from Grislehatn to the Finland coast, at nine miles. I cannot comprehend this.

The passage over the Gulf is by no means unpleasant to those who are accustomed to the element. I took my time, and think I must have seen at least two hundred islets, large and small, fertile and barren, inhabited and uninhabited. We sometimes wound our way through a romantic nest of these little islands, which were occupied by sea-fowl only.

It was rather late when I departed from Lappwessi. The sun soon after set with a golden lustre, and the silver moon rose. My gondoliers were two old Swedish sailors, who had seen various parts of the world, and described their voyages to their two younger companions. Truly magical was the effect of the rosy evening hue, and of the almost full moon upon the smooth surface of the water, between these countless islets of granite, which produce only here and there a few bushes. It was so clear that on one of them, at which we stopped awhile, we could see to gather the strawberries, which perfumed the air. I landed at Kumlingen, and found very comfortable accommodations. A good bed was ready to receive me, and furnished with clean linen, which I am sorry to say is by no means the case in some of the larger German towns. From Kumlingen to Wargala was a large expanse of water. The weather was cloudy and cold, the wind blew strong, and the sea ran high, I had on this occasion three male and one young female sailor, as had been the case before on similar occasions. The voyage did not exactly agree with the heroine, for she was sea-sick to a great degree, and the water dashed copiously into the boat. I liked this; for I had it now in my power to say that a woman had been sick on my account, which will probably not occur a second time. A few years ago indeed, one of our countrymen wished to convince me of something like it; but I afterwards found reason not to believe her.

Soon after, even a sailor was sick. I now sat down very

seriously, and comforted myself with the idea that the waves could have no effect on me, unless they absolutely swallowed me, which, indeed, they several times threatened to do. The passage is certainly not without danger in merely open boats; for sudden squalls may easily cause unfortunate accidents. Between Bomarsund and Haroldsby, stand the old well-known ruins of Castelho m, in the vicinity of which the islands are remarkably fertile. At Eckeroe, particularly, the grain grows most luxuriantly. From this place to Grissleham is the longest aquatic stage. The wind was directly against us and very high, and objections were made to attempt the passage at all. I had six sailors, besides two assistants, till we were clear of the harbour. In the midst of our passage we met a packet-boat. The crews with much trouble worked into a small bay, where the boats were exchanged. The letters went by my boat to Eckeroe, and the packet conveyed me to Grissleham. Three dollars had been mentioned to me at the post-house in Eckeroe as the fare for my passage; yet I was now compelled to pay eight and a half. "It must be so," they observed without an exception, and cared not a pin for the post-book at Eckeroe. I paid; for in what other way could I escape? The Scandinavians had me on the hip. Whether they were right, let the post-book at Eckeroe decide. I by no means think the sum too high, and would not have sailed half the distance for the same; still no one has a right to make a charge which is contrary to established regulation.

The wind abated and became more favourable, so that we reached Grissleham in good time. When a man has been tossed on the waves for a whole day, and afterwards meets with good soup, fresh sole, and excellent strawberries for his dessert, he may feel satisfied with the landing; and I was so.

The post-master here told me that I must on no account give the boors more than six schillings per mile for the horse, and yet I was obliged to pay twelve. I do not know how to reconcile this. I think twelve a reasonable sum, and afterwards learnt that it was the usual allowance; but why did the post-master tell me otherwise? He charged quite enough for the refreshment, which I took at his house.

I bent by the right through Ahlby and Broe to Upsal. This is but a bye-road, yet a very good one. On the islands before mentioned in the Gulph of Bothnia, I had seen in all but three churches. Here they were rather thickly scattered, and the cultivation of the soil was admirable, especially near Ahlby. At Petersburgh there are some plantations of oaks, which are probably, as reported, of a date prior to Peter the First. Before I left that city I was assured that I should not find this

tree uncommon in Russian Finland; but in spite of my strict observation, I had never seen another oak-leaf till I arrived here. Birches and alders were the usual trees, and it was near Abo that I first again saw hasel-bushes. So much the more was I now gratified by the appearance of the oaks, which grow in the vicinity of Grissleham numerously, and appear to be in a thriving state.

At Edingen, a stage between Grissleham and Upsal, preparations were made to drive me directly to the latter place, for which short distance no less than six rix-dollars were demanded. The real fare did not amount to one. I referred the extortioners to the post-book, in which I had written my name; and insisted that I would pay no more than the regular charge of twelve schillings a mile. The people persisted in their demand, and told a long story of a Russian courier, who had travelled at an exceeding slow pace, gone a great way round, and paid an amazing sum. They seemed further to think that he was perhaps a spy. I could not thoroughly understand them; for I am only acquainted with the Swedish language in a trifling degree, which they spoke with great rapidity, and probably not in the best dialect. I took my knapsack, which I had already buckled to the *carriole*, threw it hastily on my back, and repeated that I would pay no more than the regular fare. At length they consented to proceed for this; but I was already in motion, and told them I would not now step into the carriage at all. They scratched their heads, and I walked away.

I had journied on for several hours, when I began to calculate that I could not reach Upsal on foot, much as I wished it. I therefore stepped into a house not far from the road, which I took for an inn, where I related my story, and asked for horses. It was, however, a private country-house. The principal inhabitants were four ladies, of whom two understood a little French; to which language I had recourse, in consequence of finding that I could not proceed with my narrative in Swedish. They promised that I should be supplied with horses, though it was not an inn, and treated me with some refreshment, particularly good beer, an article which I had not met with since I left Friederichsham. It was, however, very late before the horses arrived, and I entered Upsal by the light of the moon at midnight.

Upsal bears a great name and is a small town, probably not larger than our Lutzen, where the benefactor of Upsal lost his life. Busser of Linkoping has, I understand, written a copious volume on this little place. The cathedral is so large that it would almost contain the population of half a Swedish province. The monument of Linnæus is humbly hidden in it;

for it occupies so retired a corner, that I twice went on purpose to see it without attaining my object. I saw, in lieu of it, a multitude of inscriptions to the memory of great and little men, who created no interest in my mind. The most remarkable monument to me was that of Count Stenbock, who exercised the rights of war with too much rigour at Altona, for which he afterwards did no short penance at Copenhagen. I felt as if my friend Stenbock, of Warsaw, was looking at me, so striking was the likeness.

The next day I visited Thunberg, who lives at his country-house not far from the town, and he had the goodness himself to show me the new botanic garden. The gentry at Palermo told me, when I was there, that they had taken the model of their botanic lecture-room from the Linnean saloon at Upsal. If this be true, they have made many alterations; for neither the new nor the old lecture-room of Linnæus much resemble the one at Palermo. The new botanic edifice here consists of a front with pillars towards the garden, and two wings. In the body of the building is the lecture-room, and in the wings the museum, as well as the warm apartments for the plants. The professor, too, has a very good house in it. The pillars are of Gottenburg sand-stone—granite would surely have been better. The lower part of the walls has been beautifully begun with square blocks of granite, but the superstructure is unhewn and rough, which has a bad effect with respect both to solidity and beauty.

The Museum principally contains articles which Thunberg collected during his travels, and presented to the Academy; so that they will not, like Linnæus's collection, find their way to a foreign country. For a private man, Thunberg's was certainly a rich and extensive collection, and there are many rarities. What most attracted my attention, were three large gazells from Africa, a cassowary, a little African buffalo, and a small very rare kind of spoon-bill. The garden is of considerable extent, and in good order.

You will easily suppose that I also visited the library, in which the only remarkable work that I looked for was the one called "The silver Manuscript of Ulphilas." I had it in my hands, and turned over the leaves without understanding a syllable of their contents. This circumstance alone will prove to you that it cannot be so much torn and so ill used as the late Küttner describes it; for it was delivered without hesitation into the hands of a stranger. But few leaves have suffered so much as to be in an illegible state. I own that I know nothing of the idiom. Next it stands Edward Lyn's edition; and perhaps the fine one of our countryman will likewise find its way hither. The history of the

book, and the circumstance from which it acquired the name of the silver manuscript is known to you; it would, therefore, be tedious to describe it.—I pass over the other curiosities of the library, except the toilet-table, which the city of Augburg, I believe, presented to young Christina. The artists, who praise the moderate productions of our times, ought to see it. M. Samuel Torner, the librarian, is a civil well-informed man; and after we had for a considerable time talked French, interlarded now and then with a little English, I discovered that he understood German, which he proved by writing for me as a token of remembrance a couplet from Haller with perfect correctness.

In my room here at Upsal hung the portraits of Biörnstahl, Stenbock, and Linnæus, charmingly executed by Bernigeroth; and the Siegwart heroes of mournful memory, wretchedly pourtrayed—Von Bunburg del. Schleich sculp.

I one day took a walk to Alt-Upsal, or Old-Upsal, which lies about an hour's saunter from the new town. This was the residence of the antient heathen kings, and two hillocks are yet pointed out as containing their remains. This is probable enough, as they have all the appearance of barrows. The present church is said to be not only the oldest in Sweden, but to have been built in the remote heathen ages. Some pious fanatics date its erection immediately after the flood, and would go still further back, if the Bible would allow it. Strabo at least, I was told, hardly mentioned it. That may be, for ought I know. But Tacitus says of the ancient Germans, of whom the inhabitants of this coast probably then formed a part: "*Cæterum nec cohibere parietibus deos, nec in ullam humani oris speciem assimilari, ex magnitude cœlestium putant.*" The rest of this subject I leave to your investigation. I hardly believe that I have written so much Latin during the last ten years.

I happened to ask in company whence Upsal derived its name, for I like to ride my hobby-horse, etymology. Will you believe it? The whole party avowed their ignorance. The Germans would certainly never allow such a stigma to rest on their Athenæum, but would rather publish whole volumes of conjectures and conclusions. I asked further what was the name of the river, which flows past the place, and was answered, the Sale. Upsal is therefore derived naturally enough from Upon the Sale. We looked into some authors, and I perceived with pleasure that Nordbeck had already pointed out my conjecture as the most rational.

The road from Upsal to Stockholm is uncommonly pleasant, sometimes on the Mälar, at others through a most romantic country. The villages in Sweden are small. In many places

only a few houses are to be seen together, and sometimes only a single one, as the soil will allow. This, however, gives the country a cheerful appearance. Indeed, the neatness altogether of the Swedish peasant's economy is beyond the conception of our countrymen.

Stockholm is not improperly called the paradise of the North, if the beautiful disposition of the whole landscape be taken into the account. Indeed, in a strict sense of the word, it should not, perhaps, be called a city; for hardly any where do we perceive any signs of enclosure, and almost every where enjoy an open prospect. Stockholm is one of the pleasantest places I have seen, and if the Mälar could have the Arno's sun, this city would be more like Elysium than Florence is. I am not happy in descriptions of this kind; so I will not make the attempt. You may read a very good one in Küttner's Travels. Acerbi states that he was fond of standing on the bridge before the castle. It is certainly a fine view; but I always seek high situations. To me, therefore, no point was so alluring as a garden near St. Catherine's church, on the other side of the lake, belonging to a tavern, and called Mosebak, or the Mount of Moses. In this situation the whole extensive scene lies stretched before you—the upper and lower part of the Malar, with all the bustle by water and by land. The landlord of this tavern is famed for brewing different sorts of liquor from fruits, which are here much admired. I ordered a bottle of raspberry-beer; but found it so strong that I could scarcely drink it; indeed I do not remember to have ever tasted so strong a beverage of this description. I only drink to quench my thirst, and leave these preparations for epicurean palates.

Sergel is quite well again; at least as well as a man of his age can expect to be. I did not call on him, because I could not suppose that he would feel any pleasure in being disturbed by a total stranger like myself; though I was afterwards assured that I should have found a very friendly reception. His statue of Gustavus the Third is finished, and a Frenchman is now gilding and polishing it. The Frenchman himself was highly polished indeed, and I wish Sergel may take care that the statue be not too much so. The work does honour to the artist, and will have a very good appearance opposite the fine pyramid in the large square behind the palace, where a pedestal is already erected for it. I am in general no admirer of a mixture of the antique and modern. At Berlin it has a very unpleasant effect in William's Place, but on this occasion it is extremely well managed. The Swedish costume is, indeed, more favourable to the artist than the German.

The finest buildings in Stockholm, next to the king's palace, are the opera-house and the mansion of the princess opposite to it.

The statue of Gustavus Adolphus in the square between them loses its effect from the colossal medallions of his ministers and generals below it. The hoof of the king's horse seems to be almost in the act of striking the minister's head, a spectacle which is as repugnant to my feelings as the slaves formerly under the statue of Louis at Paris, and on the bridge over the Spree at Berlin. Are men so base and abandoned, that they can form no idea of greatness, without a degradation of their nature? For my part, I cannot conceive how the former can exist with the latter. At the steps of the palace belonging to the princess are four pillars of granite, which in point of polish are probably not to be surpassed either in Sweden or elsewhere. Some of the bridges and gates of this city already show that the Swedes are both able and willing to work this granite. In Petersburgh, however, the art is better understood. The new academy at Abo and these pillars at Stockholm are the best specimens of it, which I have observed in Sweden; but they are not to be compared with the Herculean labours of the same kind at Petersburgh.

At the opera-house, the whole unfortunate masquerae was described to me, in which the late king lost his life. The apartment is rather small, and if Ankerstroem had not been so imprudent as to use those particular pistols, he would hardly have been discovered among the crowds of attendants and confederates. This edifice, like the Michaeloff palace on the Neva, inspires a peculiar sensation, while the mind reflects that two men, of whom their contemporaries formed a very different opinion, each erected the theatre where the closing tragical scene of his life was acted. The small room was interesting to me, in which Gustavus, during his last moments, gave directions with firm composure for the maintenance of a political establishment. Whether this will prove beneficiel to his kingdom and his own family, is still very uncertain. A good king can never have too much power; a bad one has too much even in the most limited government

The road through the Park to the baths, and back on the other side of the water, is as romantic as can be imagined in Hesperia. A large number of country-houses are here to be seen, among which the seats of the Spanish, English, and Russian ambassadors are most conspicuous. But I no longer looked at all these erections of luxury, when I beheld the large venerable oaks, which here form a truly sacred grove. As a proof of his classic taste, the Spanish ambassador has felled a fine portion of them, in order to build something not very beautiful on the spot. Will you credit me when I tell you that I declined an invitation to a ball in the Park, where I was assured that I should see all the beau-monde of Sweden—at least as much as can be seen in August? Instead of going thither, I

first wandered among the rocks, and then pored over my Aristophanes at home. What concern have I with balls? I neither dance, nor play at cards; and I am already convinced that the men in Sweden are brave and polite, the women beautiful and amiable.

A new undertaking here, and one of some consequence, is the working of porphyry of Felfdahl on the borders of Norway. The stone is of exquisite beauty, and the polish admirable. I understand that a joint-stock company has undertaken the prosecution of this experiment, which is so far not exactly what might be wished, as it is to be feared that the prices may in consequence become too high. Orders, however, may now be sent from foreign countries with a drawing of the articles wanted; and these are executed at a stipulated rate, and in an excellent style of workmanship. As far as my knowledge extends, prophyry is very rare in Europe; and if this treasure be properly husbanded, it may be of great advantage to Sweden. The articles do not yet assume that elegance and lightness as to form which is obtained by practice; but the well-known taste of the Swedes in the arts will soon bring this to perfection; and the discovery is worthy of the attention of all Northern Europe. The superintendant of the undertaking is M. Hjelm, director of the mint, a man, who bears the character of possessing an extensive knowledge and refined taste.

I must now relate to you a little story, which is rather humiliating to your humble servant. I have several times been at Weimar, and my friends there repeatedly wished to introduce me to that charming poetess Imhof. But when I am taking my walks, my dress is seldom such as is proper for the palaces of princes, where she then resided. I therefore had never seen her. Here, on the lake of Mälar, I was, of course, less particular with respect to the formalities of dress; and as I heard that she lived at Marienburg, I took a boat and was rowed over. I was directed to a house, where I delivered my card, and waited a minute. A civil young lady now appeared, and said to me with perfect *naïveté*, in a tone by no means unfriendly, but without further preface, "I never heard your name in my life." This was certainly not pleasant to me. "Have I the honour," asked I, "to see madam von Hellwig?" "My sister is ill," replied the lady, "and you cannot see her." "I am sorry for it," observed I. "If," continued she, "you will call again in a week, it may possibly be the case." "That I cannot," answered I. She shrugged her shoulders—I involuntarily imitated her a little, and departed.

This is always my fate when I compel myself to be vastly polite. As I am here, thought I, it is a duty which I owe to the German Muse and my own taste to see the lady, who presented

us with the lovely Sisters of Lesbos.—Well, well! when a man has done his duty, he may proceed quietly; and console himself. "I never heard your name in my life," were the words which sounded in my ear for several minutes after I had stepped into the boat. Yet if my vanity had been very much mortified by the circumstance, I should probably not have related it; for except my Mephistophiles from Stockholm, no one heard it, and he did not understand the German language. I had just ceased to moralize on the subject when my boat-women (for the gondoliers are here principally females) brought up at the customhouse, and announced that they had nothing on board liable to pay duty; a regulation, which appears to me very unnecessary, as goods may be smuggled into Stockholm at a hundred corners, and no one would think of bringing them up the Mälar.

The inhabitants of Stockholm do not speak much of their king; but complaints are made here and there that he is not sufficiently affable, and evinces an evident prejudice against the capital. If this be true, His Majesty certainly does not quite understand what is to his own advantage; for in my opinion the citizens of Stockholm are a good-natured race of people, whose affections it would be easy to acquire. Other circumstances, however, should be considered. The present king, when the fatal catastrophe befel his father, was at an age when occurrences operate more powerfully on the nerves and sensations than on the understanding. The aptitude for impression on both these by any remarkable event still remains, without the understanding being able to gain a firmer superiority, especially when a restless desire of action is confined within narrow limits.

Drotningholm pleased me better than Haga, not because it is larger or more splendid, but because I think the situation near the lake finer and more healthy The gardens are very extensive, but not well laid out. There are even many contemptible little ornaments and playthings. Neglect is every where visible. Haga is in a lovely retired situation, but it cannot be favourable to health, for I observed in the water near it a number of bog-plants, and the foundation of the building is very little higher than the surface of the lake. The window is, of course, still secretly shown to all strangers, at which the confederates watched for several days previous to the catastrophe of the redoubts, in order to execute their object.

The Swedish military pleased me better than any other. The men are well fed and well clothed, have a commanding appearance, and evince great skill. The uniform of the officers is [illegible] and proper, not like the new-fashioned cut of the Russian

and Prussian army, which always makes the officer appear to me like Poverty personified, or at the best gives him the air of an opera dancer, not to mention its bad effects on health; for exposure of the *os sacrum* is, in the opinion of many medical men, often the cause of colds, cholic, fevers, gout, and a whole legion of complaints. Fortunately, matters have not proceeded so far with the common soldier, who is more properly clothed. The objection which I have to the present Russian breeches is that they do not cover the top of the boot, and consequently do not protect the foot from coarse sand and small stones, a matter of great importance during a march. The emperor seems not to have thought of this, when he annulled the regulations of Potemkin, by which the foot was properly secured.

The Swedes are much dissatisfied with Acerbi's Tour; but do not deny that it contains many truths and is written with spirit. During my little excursion I have had opportunities of discovering several inaccuracies, with which he has never been publicly charged. It must, nevertheless, be allowed, that he has made much of his time, and that it is wonderful he had not fallen into more errors, when one reflects on the limited period, during which he made his observations.

We often complain that the Swedes know so little of German literature. It is a question whether we are better versed in their's. With scientific subjects, they are certainly acquainted, as soon as any work of consequence appears in any nation; they are, indeed, frequently before us. But, who can expect them to know the ephemeral productions of all our poets and romance-writers, the principal interest of which, when there is any, can only be felt by the German nation; I have, however, seen translations from the German in various parts of the country, among which were particularly Lafontaine's novels. I heard an anecdote here of Leopold the secretary of state. He was at the play when the Stranger, translated from Kotzebue, was performed. The secretary is himself known to the nation as a good poet, and rigid critic. He cursed and railed at Kotzebue during the performance with uncommon violence, yet at intervals the tears gushed from his eyes, when a pathetic passage occurred. "What a contradiction," said a friend to him, "at one moment to censure, at the next to weep!" "It is no contradiction," answered Leopold, "I condemn the whole—I shed tears at solitary parts. Several of these are excellent—yet the whole is bad."

Some of our countrymen detained me here longer than I intended. In Reyer the Saxon *chargé-d'-affaires* I found an old university acquaintance; and it was natural that we should celebrate on the Mälar the recollection of many pleasant hours passed on the Pleisse.

LETTER IX.

COPENHAGEN, 28*th August* 1805.

ON the 17th inst. I left Stockholm, and on the 25th crossed the Sound to this place. You perceive, therefore, that I have neither travelled very rapidly, nor much the reverse. My tour through Sweden is probably the pleasantest of my life. I wish, however, that the inns afforded rather better fare. This is of no great consequence to me; but to some it would be otherwise The journey may, indeed, be so regulated as to make meals only at towns; but by this mode the enjoyment of the country is materially abridged; and the country is surely far preferable to the town.

On the first day I had determined to reach Nykoeping, which I effected, but at a late hour. It was not a very early one, when I drove out of Stockholm; I was detained here and there; I found the road pleasant, and took my time. Eleven Swedish miles constitute a tolerable day's journey, so that it was midnight when I reached my destination. Every one at the inn was asleep, except the ostler, who offered to forward me immediately, but I wanted to sleep here; for it had rained heavily in the course of the evening, and I was wet. I should have liked to pursue my way on foot through the night, but to sit in wet clothes and a cold wind did not suit me. On foot I could not at present proceed; as I had at Stockholm taken charge of some *learning*, which weighed thirty pounds, for Mr. Ulrich, of Norkoeping, and this it would be impossible for me to carry, in addition to my knapsack. I entered the porch—I knocked and shouted at the door, assisted by my postillion—no one awoke—no one heard us. I threw, therefore, my luggage on the stone-floor, converted it, as well as I could, into a pillow, and lay down to rest; for to think of eating was now out of the question, though I was hungry. In Nykoeping, the night air, even on the 17th of August, feels rather cool, especially when a person lies on a stone floor in wet clothes; so that I awoke shuddering and uncomfortable. Besides this, I had some strange neighbours, who uttered tones of a very peculiar kind; so that I was for a long time conjecturing what species of [illegible] they could belong to. When I moved, they seemed as

as placing themselves on the defensive. I conjectured whether they might be parrots, or guinea-pigs, or squirrels; but at break of day I discovered them to be two cats, who had been playing their gambols. You must make allowances for my ignorance. In my secluded dwelling I have never kept any living creature, and have in particular no predilection for a cat. I now began to make a noise in earnest; this at length waked a kind of hostess, who, however, told me I could have nothing at that house, but might find accommodation at one opposite. I went thither, knocked, was welcomed, and ordered breakfast, to make amends for my want of supper. Why did not the blockhead of a postillion bring me hither at first! Here I should have been comfortable.

After I had warmed and refreshed myself sufficiently, I resumed my seat in the *carriole*, and made a short day's journey to Norkoeping, where I staid the next two days, because—I liked it; that is, I liked it very much; for had I staid at every place which pleased me during my tour, I should have found a want both of time and cash.

The situation of Norkoeping must appear very beautiful to any one, who is not come from Stockholm. The Motala (as I believe the river is called which flows through the town) has a very pleasant effect from its forming several considerable waterfalls even in the town itself. Below it is navigable for pretty large three-masted vessels, and shipbuilding seems to be carried on to some extent. Here is to be found the first district of any extent, which, after leaving Upsal, an inhabitant of a level country would call a plain. But when we speak of a plain in Sweden, no reference must be made to those of Liegnitz, Lutzen or Chalons. Even in the immediate neighbourhood of Norkoeping, there are gentle ascents, and at the distance of a few miles, hills are visible. In fact, the waterfalls prove that there is no dead flat here. This town formerly had considerable manufactories of copper articles; but they have been on the decline for some time.

The Bath at Himmelsdalund is a pleasant walk not far from the town, where one easily satisfied will meet with more enjoyment of nature and life than he hopes for, and where the more refined may also be gratified.

The society here is polished and well informed—it must be owned, indeed, that in no country is universal cultivation to be more met with than in Sweden. M. Ulrich, to whom I delivered the package of learning which I had brought from Stockholm, received me with generous hospitality, and shewed me every civility which I could have expected from a fellow-countryman.

In his company I became acquainted with M. Lindahl, a man who would, from his extensive knowledge and liberal sentiments, be an honour to any nation. Being a man of property, and having no family, he retired from the mercantile concern, in which he had succeeded his father, and made several tours through various parts of Europe, in the course of which he became personally acquainted with the most learned men of Germany and France. He now leads a life of lettered ease, and in his house, which is conducted upon an excellent and hospitable scale, literary treasures are to be found, which are but very seldom met with in the collection of a private man, and more seldom still, when that private man has been a merchant. He has the best publications upon all subjects connected with the arts; and he himself possesses a collection of engraved portraits, amounting to twenty thousand.* In history and philosophy too he is tolerably rich. Among his rare books are some, which we in vain look for among the greater collections. He shewed us two copies of the Koran beautifully written; a printed and a manuscript copy of the excommunicated work *De tribus Impostoribus*. During my short examination of it, I did not observe any thing particular. At all events it was not the old original copy, belonging to the emperor Frederick the 2d. Bayle's book contains quite as much heresy, with keener and more forcible argument. I also here met with a very rare Swedish catechism, by one bishop Emporagrius von Strengnäs, which denies the wife to possess any personal right, and counts her among the furniture and moveables of her husband. You may easily suppose that such a publication was prohibited and burnt. His other rarities I have forgotten; but his liberal sentiments afforded me great satisfaction. He knew our native country and our German literature better than many a German professor.

Should you ever visit Norkoeping, I can in every respect recommend the great inn kept by M. Lüdeke. The accommodation and fare are good; the charges for them are reasonable. But who can answer how long it will remain so? for in nothing are changes more rapid and remarkable, than in governments and inns.

The road from Norkoeping to Jonkoeping by Linkòeping and Grenna is fine throughout, and in some parts beautifully romantic. The cultivation of the soil on every side is smiling and exemplary. Near Bankeberg I could at one time see six villages with churches, and át Oestad two churches stood within gunshot of each other, which in Sweden would hardly be expected. Near Miölby the country is uncommonly fertile. A river flows through it from the hills on the right. Every countenance glistened with satisfaction and cheerfulness—every thing seemed to breath activity and dili-

gence. Near Linkoeping I saw some young women with faces than which Raphael's fancy, in his happiest moments, could not have formed more beautiful. At Kumla I stepped into a *Carriole*, which for slightness and craziness perhaps never had its equal. The vehicle called a *Carriole*, has only two wheels; and the one on my side was not circular, but in the form of a spheroid. Fancy to yourself how pleasant it must be to drive in such a machine on rocky roads. The motion was almost as bad as that of the *Telege* in Russia, and made every one of my ribs ache grievously. I must, however, do the Swedes the justice to confess that I met with but few of these bad carriages. The Swedish postillions have, however, an unaccountable custom. The roads are good, and in general tolerably smooth; yet can it not be expected but that here and there loose stones will be lying, some large, others small. Over all these stones every Swedish postillion seems determined to drive, and never misses them. Probably every wheel is intended to supply the place of a rammer, and ultimately to force these stones into the road. This is, to be sure, not very pleasant to the traveller, or to the owner of the vehicle. In our country a very different practice is pursued, and with a very bad effect; for no sooner is a road repaired than a heavy waggon forces ruts into it, which are strictly followed by every wheel that afterwards passes, and thus the road is soon completely ruined. "He can't drive in the ruts," is a proverb among German boors to signify a stupid fellow. All I can say is that I wish no one could drive in the ruts. We should then have good roads, and be able to keep them good.

In Sweden the roads seldom show the deep marks of wheels; but I grant that such heavy waggons do not pass over them, as in the neighbourhood of Leipzig.

When the traveller has passed for about an hour in Sweden through wild masses of granite he is often agreeably surprised by a little laughing paradise at once opening to his view.

From Osjö, Holkaberg and Grenna quite to Jonkoeping, the countless and often romantic windings of the Wenner lake are ever in view.

In Grenna I again found very fine cherries for the first time, which I much enjoyed. They were certainly not quite so good as at Lodi; but when a person has just crossed the Gulph of Bothnia, he is not quite so fastidious as when he has for a month before revelled in the charms of nature near Mount Etna.

From Grenna past Raby to Jonkoeping it is pleasant to proceed by water; and the hills on the right have a very picturesque effect. At Jonkoeping, which is a very neat little town on the Wenner lake, the agreeable country is closed, and the traveller

now proceeds for several stages surrounded by wild forests and woods. But here too industry of every kind has effected what nature at first seemed to deny.

Near Stockholm the harvest was begun, and I had observed groupes of reapers from time to time on the whole way to Jonkoeping; but now they ceased. In some districts between Norkoeping and Linkoeping I saw corn of a height and strength, which I before had no conception of. Not far from Jonkoeping, I stepped into a corn field, which was by no means the best that I had observed, and without further search pulled up a stem, which produced ten sound ears An eleventh, which was sickly, I threw away, because it seemed to contain but few sound grains. The least of these ears contained forty-six, and the best fifty-eight grains; and the produce of the whole stem was five hundred and four. I also found several single ears of corn, containing sixty-six grains. It appears to me that this is at least equal to our produce; but I am not farmer enough to speak decisively on the point.

Barnarp, Byarem, Skillingaryd, Klafshult are the stages by which I proceeded from Jonkoeping; they are all rather sterile, and covered with wood As far as Skillingaryd I was conveyed and accompanied by Dr. Gothlander of Jonkoeping. Varnarno and Tano are again agreeable stages; the latter place is contiguous to a lake of considerable extent; but on the whole, picturesque and beautiful country may be said to cease till you pass over the hills to Schonen Nevertheless, even the wild acclivities themselves sometimes discover between them small portions of land, in which the situation and soil have yielded to persevering industry. In my whole tour through Sweden I have no where seen such a wilderness as from Planina to Adlersberg in Carinthia.

Would you believe it? I almost think that I am beginning to feel symptoms of sentimentality in my old age. I have been a few times in action I have seen several comrades fall before me and at my side, and yet I found no particular emotion under the left button-hole. At present, as I was passing between Markaryd and Fagerhult about sun set, I again beheld the leaf of the beech. Involuntarily I fell upon the bank close to it, and kissed the leaf, and hid my face in the thicket, I even believe that a tear started into my eye. There must be in this something of the *dulcis patriæ fumus* which makes the Laplander discontented with Hamburgh. If no oaks and beeches grow in paradise, I shall certainly not long remain there. In the neighbourhood of Fagerhult, the beeches were in such perfection as is hardly to be witnessed even in our Thuringia woods. That portion of Schonen, through which I passed, is far from being so beautiful as others described to me, or indeed as the province altogether. Towards

Malmoe and Lund it must be better and more fertile. There are, however, certainly some rich views near a river, the name of which has escaped me; but on approaching within a few miles of Helsingborg, the cultivation is far inferior to that above. There seem, indeed, to be some hindrances occasioned by moisture; but it nevertheless appears to me, that more might and ought to be done.

The king was just coming with his suite from the neighbouring bath, as I entered Helsingborg; and an officer of his escort commanded my postillion from a considerable distance, to make way in a voice of thunder, as if had been commanding at least a couple of battalions.

Of all the towns which I had seen in Sweden, Helsingborg appeared to have the least attractions, although it is not quite neglected by nature. In consequence of an agreement between the two nations, there are on the Swedish side no fortifications whatever. The old castle has a telegraph; but I know not with what point it communicates—probably towards Malmoe, and then further on the coast. Acerbi says that he only saw one telegraph, which was at Grisslehamn; but they are to be met with in various places; and not unfrequently in the islands of the Gulph of Bothnia, which convey intelligence to, and receive it from Finland. It would be absurd to have such a machine at Grisslehamn only, for it would be impossible to communicate thereby with the coast of Finland. On the Finland side I grant that I saw none; but they are probably nearer to the sea.

For a boat over the Sound I was obliged to pay four Swedish dollars and a half; and had again the pleasure to spend five hours in stormy weather on the water, though the passage usually does not exceed thirty minutes. Neptune seems to be universally against me. Even my first voyage from the North Sea to America, occupied two and twenty weeks.

It appears rather singular, that a fixed opinion should still prevail of the possibility that a fleet of any consequence could be opposed with effect, if determined on sailing through the Sound. Various examples have proved this conjecture to be fallacious. With a tolerable wind not only lord Nelson, but any other resolute Briton or Batavian may pass with a squadron of tolerable strength. The width is considerable, and the balls from the Danish batteries must have lost much of their force. Nothing can operate decisively against the passage, unless the shallows on the opposite side compel vessels to steer closer to the Danish coast, which I do not believe. Single merchant's vessels may certainly be compelled to bring to; but this is more effected by the guardships than by the batteries on land. It

appears to me that one may sail as easily through the Sound with reference to opposition from the shore, as through the Straights of Messina. But seamen may decide on this, who better know the depth of water.

The Sound, both above and below, affords to the eye a surprising and highly gratifying spectacle, from the number of vessels belonging to all nations, and consisting of all sizes, which are there collected. Helsingoer, or Elsineur with its old citadel, has certainly a better appearance than Helsingborg; but then the Swedish coast on the right towards Gothenburg, possesses infinitely more picturesque beauty.

It is said to be a distance of five miles from the coast to the capital; but Danish miles are well known to be rather short, and these are remarkably so. The road is good, when compared with those of Germany; but only tolerable, if compared with those of Sweden.

There is, perhaps, no district in Europe, which affords so much pleasing variety of cultivation, as from the Sound to this place. The villages and little towns are so neat, that they may vie with those of England. From the time I left Schonen, the complaint of an uncommonly wet and cold season was universal; and the appearance of the crops was striking. Till I reached Jonkoeping, I found the peasantry busily employed in the harvest. At Schonen and here, no one had yet thought of it. The corn was still green, and every one alarmed on that account.

It was Sunday, and all the houses of entertainment were full of jocund guests, who enjoyed the holiday according to their different inclinations. On the road from Helsingoer to this place, there are several remarkably fine woods of beech; and you know what pleasure the sight of a tree, so congenial to my native soil, always affords me. What first reminded me of the capital was, the large three-cornered place surrounded on every side by limes, where Struensee paid the forfeit of his inconsiderate folly—for who can decide when this becomes criminality?

If I should never again visit Sweden, the recollection of my tour will still afford me frequent satisfaction. It is the most polished and most pleasant of the northern countries. Amidst all the poverty, which can neither be denied nor concealed, there reigns universal regularity, and apparent comfort. In Sweden it is very rarely that you meet with men, whose looks and corpulence proclaim, that the chief object of their lives is practically to study the best system of digestion.

The inhabitants are universally more industrious than in many other countries, particularly Germany and Russia. I regret that I could not see more of the northern provinces, and particularly Dalecarlia—a district of which the Swedes are justly

so proud. My journey was confined to the direct road from Aberfors to Helsingborg, with the little deviation to Upsal. I travelled, nevertheless, a hundred and eighty German miles; and not a single spot did I see, of which I could say: "This is dreary—I should not like to live here." In my whole tour through Sweden, I only met with a single beggar; and this was at Stockholm, on the bridge before the castle. Of what wealthy country can the same be said? Among the Britons, who buy and sell the world, the beggars almost form a regular guild.

The two greatest monuments of national exertion in Sweden, Trollhätta and Karlskrone, I unfortunately did not see; but they are so well known from the description of Küttner, and other travellers, that you do not lose any thing. I was somewhat sorry, I allow, that time would not permit me to visit these two places.

You must allow me to make an observation on a matter of rural economy, which may, perhaps, not be unprofitable to our native country. Küttner has already remarked, that in Sweden there are machines in the fields and meadows which resemble large racks; and on these hay and corn are dried when necessary. Küttner speaks of this as peculiar to Sweden; but similar precautions are taken in Lithuania, Courland and Livonia, and indeed generally through the northern countries, where the weather is not to be trusted. I have also observed them in North America, and I should be surprised if they are not used in Scotland. I also remember to have seen them in the marshy parts of the Netherlands. Indeed, wherever wet is dreaded, such precautions are very natural. Might one not go a step further, and arrange the matter in such a way, that every peasant should have a drying-place with this convenience immediately before his house, so that he might avail himself of every moment which suited either for drying or stacking? When it is not necessary, so much the better; but there are frequently harvests which demand such an arrangement—for instance the present one. Before the labourers have reached a distant field, turned over the hay, and prepared to load, the weather perhaps changes, and nothing further can be done. But were the article removed to the front of the labourer's dwelling, the whole family could work whenever weather permitted, and stack immediately. That this is attended with additional labour is evident; but what will a person not do to save the fruits of the earth, and fodder for his cattle? I remember, indeed, to have seen a few good farmers pursue this practice in Germany, when necessity demanded it.

The cultivation of land by burning wood upon it, and using

the ashes as manure, is no longer so common in Sweden, as in Livonia and Russian Finland. It is, nevertheless, a practice, which is here and there to be met with. The trees are felled, the trunks removed for more profitable purposes, and the remainder burnt for manure. In Russian Finland, the operation has sometimes a dreadful appearance. I have seen seven or eight men and women blackened by the smoke, and half burnt by the heat, wandering from fire to fire with large poles, and encouraging the blaze till every piece of wood was consumed.

In Sweden, as in many other places, a complaint is made of wood being scarce for fuel, and search has already been made for coal, but hitherto without much success. In several parts of the kingdom, the mines cannot be worked for want of wood.

LETTER X.

LUBECK, *8th September*, 1805.

I TOLD the postillion, as we entered Copenhagen, that he must take me to a good inn, where the people spoke some other language as well as Danish; for I made but very bad progress in my studies. The further I penetrated into Sweden, the less I seemed to improve; so that I at length laid aside my Pepliers, began to treat the matter practically, and by the help of English, managed to make myself tolerably understood. Just as I was beginning to murder the Swedish language in a more determined way, by attaining a kind of fluency, and just as I had persuaded myself to like their Knackabroe, I crossed the Sound. Thus it is with life itself—we are hardly settled comfortably before we set sail.

My postillion brought me, then, to the Royal Hotel, opposite the Old Castle, at Copenhagen. It was impossible, he said, to meet with better accommodation, and indeed, I was satisfied. The house, as you may suppose, is managed in great style. The smart waiters who came to the door, looked somewhat dubiously at me and my knapsack, as if to say that neither of us had any business here. For a man, whose appearance does not hold forth favourable promise, is sure to meet with contempt. He need not be either learned, or wise, or honest, if his appearance be but prepossessing.

"Shew me a room," said I to the gazing Mephistophiles. My tone had a better effect than my figure. He very politely took my knapsack, and led me to an apartment, which I liked well enough. The hotel is certainly situated in one of the finest squares which the city can boast, and in these it is not deficient.

Before me on the canal a great degree of mercantile bustle prevailed—vessels taking in and delivering their various cargoes. On the opposite side, soldiers were at work among the ruins of the old palace, and collecting from them materials for new buildings. This is one of the largest and finest ruins that I ever beheld; and would do honour to the taste of any age or nation. I am of opinion that there is no other such building further to the north—at least as far as I can judge from my observations in Russia and Sweden.

The whole of Zealand and Copenhagen in particular, lies very low. It is therefore not to be wondered at, that foreigners make so many complaints about damp, unhealthy, rheumatic air. Marezoll, particularly, dwells on this; and if I may judge from my short residence there, which was towards the end of August too, I am much inclined to support his opinions; for even at that fine season of the year, above half the days were gloomy and rainy.

In Copenhagen, a German may fancy himself half at home. I am not well qualified for hunting after literary trifles, or collecting minute statistical particulars, you must excuse me then, if my information in this respect be rather meagre. I was only once at the Royal Library. It is not rich, when compared with those of Paris, Vienna, or Dresden; but nevertheless, of some consequence. There was a large collection of duplicates laid aside, which were going to the new institutions in Russia. Moldenhawer was not present, and I heard, at several places, reflections on his literary egotism. It is well known that Suhm purchased the library left by Reiske, and presented it to the Royal one. There were some articles of considerable value in it; for instance, Golius with Reiske's notes—Reiske's Dissertations on the Arabian Physicians, with many later remarks—an interleaved copy of Stobæus, with manuscript remarks by Reiske. All these lay for many years in a corner without any notice being taken of them. At length they were put into some order, but no one knows what is become of the Stobæus. It may readily be imagined that an interleaved book of Reiske, contains something remarkable. I am sorry for all this on Moldenhawer's account; but I have good authority for what I state.

An unfounded complaint is, however, made against the library by some, who assert, that every thing which is written by foreigners, and particularly by Englishmen, against Denmark, is carefully concealed. The truth, as I am informed, is, that all the works on Danish history stand in the divisions of the upper gallery. Whether it is a good method to lay the history of the country somewhat aside, is another question. Of modern

works there are very few of any consequence, either in the arts, philology, or history.

The Musæum contains, besides a number of pleasing trifles, many articles, which are of the greatest interest not only to Denmark, but to Germany. What a pity that the celebrated golden horns should have been so shamefully lost! As a proof of the clemency, which distinguishes the Danish government, the villain who stole and destroyed them, was not punished with death, but only sent to the house of correction. Of all the musæums which I have seen, this is probably the richest and most instructing to a student of history. The antichamber is of greater importance than is supposed. It contains a collection of paintings, which are generally not much valued, but which probably cannot be equalled in all the rest of Copenhagen. The paintings in the musæum itself have little beyond historical value, and are principally portraits from Margaret, down to the present reigning family. But in the antichamber there are several pieces of sterling merit, selected from among the best masters of the Italian schools. The inspector told me, in answer to my enquiries respecting three of them, that they were by Michael Angelo, Leonardo da Vinci, and Raphael. I am not connoisseur sufficient to say, that he was positively right, but it is probable. The only one I have my doubts about, is that said to be by Leonardo da Vinci, as I do not perceive in it his usual perfection, either in the drawing or colouring. But there are certainly others in the collection, which are classically Italian. I am told that there are more in the various royal castles and palaces of Zealand. It would, therefore, be perhaps better to bring all the good old pieces hither, or collect them together in any other place. I neither saw Klasse's library, nor that of the university. The founder of the first was, as you probably know a man, who in every respect deserved the praise and gratitude of his native country, as well as the respect of every upright man in Europe. From the rank of an unknown private man, he rose, through his own exertion and comprehensive genius in many sciences, (particularly mechanics and physics,) to a situation which gave him opportunities of becoming the benefactor of a great city. There is scarcely any public institution here, which has not enjoyed some portion of his bounty, and his name is every where mentioned with cordial reverence.

One of the pleasantest excursions which I had was in a boat with Scheel, who, as city-physician, has the care of the quarantine. This is here regulated in a most excellent manner, and all the other northern ports place confidence in the investigation. Whatever is examined here, and found healthy, may pass any where; and with respect to ships, that have not been examined,

the regulations here adopted are copied at the other ports. Scheel is, in this respect, a happy man; wherever he appears, he seems to be the harbinger of freedom; for, till his examination has taken place, of course, no one can go on shore. The Danes are at present, probably next to the English, the most extensive navigators. Almost every day vessels arrive from all parts of the world, and principally Danish. Hence the luxuries of different countries crowd to the Sound, where they are fully enjoyed. A turtle feast, with the usual accompaniment of foreign wines, is common among the merchants here. Cato would probably not have been very well satisfied with such a meal; but who will look among the favourite children of Mercury for frugality?

Masters of ships are continually bringing hither assortments of wild beasts, as the love of gain or whim may direct, and without thinking that they thereby afford great pleasure to the natural historian. Altogether, Copenhagen is the best and pleasantest port I know. That of Syracusa alone might be made better, if the people there were not too idle. No where is so great an assemblage of vessels belonging to all nations; for it is, the best intermediate port between the north and the south.

One of the West-India vessels, which I visited with Scheel, was originally an American, the whole crew of which had been massacred by the negroes at Guinea. From the negroes it came to the Portuguese; and from them to the Danes. Several marks still remained in the ship, which shewed the fury of the negroes. It would not be amiss if a similar fate were to overtake all those inhabitants of Bristol and Liverpool, who with true British humanity, to their own infamy, and that of Christendom, perpetuate the slave trade. It would be but a very slender remuneration for the horrors, which they partly practise, partly cause.

By one of the vessels from the West Indies, the Board of Health at Copenhagen lately received for examination, the matter of the yellow-fever, in a bottle hermetically sealed; for the faculty there were unanimously of opinion, that the disorder was epidemic, but not contagious. An original idea this of sending the yellow fever under seal to Europe. The matter was described to have been taken from the patient in the most violent crisis of the disorder. You may easily suppose that this intelligence, and the appearance of the bottle, had no very pleasant effect, and the city-physician received orders to take the precious donation, and carefully to deposit it in one of the deepest parts of the sea. No examination of it, therefore, took place; though there were not wanting medical men at Copenhagen too, who were convinced that it might have been done without danger.

Every one at that place still speaks with enthusiasm of the

battle fought on the third of April, and describes some trait of valour and generosity to the honour of the nation. In fact, the British navy learnt, on the above day, that it is not quite so almighty as it fancied itself. If the Russian and Swedish fleets could have formed a junction at the same time, the Triton Nelson would have repented his rash adventure. He, however, had doubtless made his calculations on the climate. There has, probably, seldom been so noble, so active, so universal a defence. Every person willingly devoted his whole strength to the service of the state; and the day is certainly one of the fairest in the annals of the nation. Young men without a name, proved themselves heroes, and common inexperienced people seemed to be tried warriors. Such is ever the consequence when a nation is attacked as a nation, and has to fight for house and hearth, before that house and hearth. This day, however, also shewed what was wanting towards the defence of the city. On the land side, Copenhagen is one of the most considerable fortresses that I have seen. It was towards the water that danger was to be apprehended; and though a landing must be accompanied with risk, and is not very probable, yet might the city have been held in rather a strict blockade. They are now remedying this by two batteries, fixed rather deep in the water. The one, called the great battery, placed upwards towards the Sound, is now almost finished, and is truly a gigantic work. It lies about the distance of a cannon shot from the shore, exactly opposite to the custom-house and haven; and can contain within itself all the requisites for a long siege, if it could at all times be provided from the city: if it be properly made use of, it will sooner be able to sink a fleet, than a fleet can destroy it; unless, indeed, the enemy should be in possession of the shore. On the site of the other battery, which is to be on the right, lie, at present, three hulls of vessels. They are old ships of the line aground. This battery is about to be begun, and is to be called Provesteen, if I mistake not; after the name of the brave captain, who here obstinately opposed the enemy, and first fell in the engagement. A noble action, a noble death, and a noble reward! When these two batteries shall be completed, it will probably be very difficult to injure Copenhagen by blockade, if its fleet can render it any portion of assistance. The support of these two works must always be a primary consideration with the state, if the metropolis is to flourish in security.

Copenhagen is not so beautifully and romantically situated as Stockholm; but there are many fine views in its neighbourhood. By taking a boat on a pleasant evening, and sailing beyond the great battery, you command such a prospect all round, as is not to be equalled in the whole Baltic. On some of the heights too, you

see the fine coast of Zealand quite to the Sound, and the coast of Sweden almost as high as Malmoe. Naples itself excels this country only in luxuriant fertility and classic scenery; the cultivation of the soil, and the manners of the people, are here far superior.

Friederichsberg is a charming object for a walk, and if, after visiting it, you will return by the coast to Copenhagen, you will enjoy an abundant portion of Nature's beauties, and procure a good appetite for your dinner. The Emperor of Russia would probably give a few millions, if he could only have the vegetation of Copenhagen at Peterhof. Walnuts grow in great perfection at Friederichsberg, and fruit in general is tolerably good.

I called twice on Münter, but did not find him at home. Had I known what I afterwards learnt at sea, I should probably have called twice more. He had, it appears, just received letters from Landolina, who was accidentally at Naples during the last earthquake, and has described the whole dreadful catastrophe minutely to his northern friend. To have heard or read any thing from the worthy Syracusan, would have been a real pleasure to me. Perhaps it may be my lot to see him again—perhaps we may again enjoy the grape-feast together, and I may again listen to his remarks respecting the garden of Alcinous.

At Scheel's, or at Schumacher's house (I forget which of the two) I saw a book on the fever which prevails among the Lascars, written by an Englishman, Mr. Hunter, probably a relation of the celebrated surgeon of the same name, and printed at Calcutta. The impression was so beautiful, that it is but rarely equalled in Germany, and was, indeed, very little inferior to the English fine printing.

The island of Amager, which is connected with the city by a bridge belonging to the fortifications, is the kitchen-garden of Copenhagen; and the rich Hollandish cultivation of it affords a most agreeable relief to the eye. It was sometimes my amusement in an afternoon, to see the artillerists throw their bombs here. I cannot, however, say much in favour of their skill; for when I was present they were seldom near the mark, and never hit it.

I am but a bad caterer. I was therefore truly obliged to our countryman M. Fiedler, who provided my basket with an abundance of good fare previous to my passage. Neptune and Œolus are seldom in good humour with me. The wind, on this occasion, blew strongly from Kiel, which was the place of my destination; so we were five whole days in a voyage which generally occupies four and twenty hours. The best of the case was, that I had time to spare, that I was in good company, and that we were all well furnished with provisions. One of my friends at Copenhagen had desired that I would give myself no trouble, as he would arrange every thing respecting my passage

with the captain of the vessel; and that I might rely on a snug cabin and bed. I had taken his advice, and given myself no trouble; but was not so fortunate in this case as I had been with regard to my provisions. The consequence of my dependance on my friend's promise was, that I found myself obliged to sleep on a large chest; and this suited me as little as the salt-beef and pork which was my constant fare in the English transport, in which I embarked for America during the colonial war. On the second night I exchanged the chest for the floor, and slept under the table, rocked by the storm. Thus the chest and the floor took their turn till the last night, when a Hamburgh physician resigned his bed to me, half out of vexation, as he said; for being rather corpulent, his narrow quarters squeezed him too closely to be borne. In fact, I have no doubt but that the worthy man's good nature was the real cause of his resignation. The sea ran very high during our passage. We had several ladies on board, and every one of them was sick. I believe I never was so gallant in my life as during this voyage.

The male part of the ship's club consisted of a Danish officer, a Danish barrister, the abovementioned physician of Hamburgh, a Mr. Pontoppidan, Mr. Lenz, the natural historian, a dumb Englishman, my countryman Schmidt, from Grimme, and your humble servant. The laugh, the joke, the song went merrily round.

I cannot say much for the regulation of Danish packet-boats. The cabin might and should have been much better. I think it wrong too, that the passenger is not provided with meat. If a liberal sum were fixed, under the authority of government, for both the passage and provisions, it would be a great accommodation. At present the provision baskets of the passengers create great confusion, and no one enjoys a comfortable meal. The people too on deck, are treated very inhumanly. Of these there were about eighteen, belonging to the lower class of the community. They were, during the whole passage, exposed to the cold rain, as well as to the waves, which frequently washed the deck. Such a voyage is almost equal to a campaign—no roof, no covering, not a remnant of sail-cloth! The hold was filled with merchandize. We heard moans and chattering of teeth above us—every one seemed to be under the influence of an ague. Were the Crown Prince, of whose good and generous disposition all Denmark speaks with enthusiasm, to see such a spectacle, he would certainly provide against its recurrence. These people would willingly pay something more, if they were allowed protection from the inclemency of the weather, and a sheltered spot to sleep upon. Humanity demands it. The passage is forty miles,

and a contrary wind makes it much more. A covering over head can be procured even by a common beggar. The best regulated passage is, perhaps, by the royal packets from Naples to Palermo.

I thought we should never get rid of the islands. Moen, and Langeland, and Falster, and whatever the rest are called, were everlastingly in sight; and we every hour expected to be driven ashore towards Mecklenburg. At length, we sung ourselves into sight of the Kiel fortress Friederichsort; but we approached it very slowly. A fishing boat now joined us, and offered to take some of the company; but they could not, Heaven knows why, come to an agreement. I had hitherto not uttered a syllable on the subject, being resigned to my fate, and unwilling to occupy any other person's place in the boat. "How many can the boat take?" demanded I at length. "Sixteen," was the answer; and scarcely was it given before I had snatched my hat, and leapt into it. "Whoever wishes to go must make haste," said I, "or I proceed alone." For you must know that whenever my purse is at its lowest ebb, my spirit is at its highest flood. The company soon assembled—no one remained behind but the British dealer in monosyllables; and we proceeded towards the town as fast as the fishermen could row us. The entrance into the bay of Kiel has a pleasing effect. On the right are the citadel, the canal, and the wood—on the left several neat villages, with a groupe of picturesque hills. I did not suppose that ship-building was carried on here to so great an extent as it is. The haven is navigable by large vessels quite up to the town.

At Kiel I found an old acquaintance, and made several new ones. Among the latter were Mr. Weber and his son, who are sufficiently known to you as literati. The son had lately been in Sweden, and I was glad to find that he too had been much pleased with that country. Sweden, indeed, must have rich resources for him as a botanist. Heinrich of Breslaw, who is professor here, seems to be much more comfortable near the Baltic, than he was on the banks of the Oder. The town of Kiel does not please me, but the neighbourhood much. There is, to be sure, no Alpine sublimity; but the country has an undulated appearance, which lulls the soul into repose and contemplation. No Tell will here summon his confederates to the great patriotic tragedy; but Voss may chuse it as a favourite spot on which to sing his Idyls. Ramdohr has done this country injustice when he decried it, and the good people of Kiel are justified in being dissatisfied with his account. To a painter of landscape there is, to be sure, nothing particularly remarkable; but the scenery will afford much pure enjoyment to the uncorrupted child of Nature.

A morning walk through Düsterbrook to the mouth of the canal, and hence to Knop, is a real gratification. I should like much to travel up the whole canal to the North-sea—the beauties must be numerous and varied. Between the mouth of it and Knop, which is hardly an hour's walk, a great number of vessels passed us; and it is amusing to see them go through the locks in rapid succession. The estate and garden of Count Baudissen are not in the highest style of beauty, for the country would hardly allow it; but there is in both a happy mixture of what is useful and pleasing. I have seldom made a more agreeable breakfast than the one at the canal inn.

Two of my acquaintance kindly accompanied me as far as Prez, where they introduced me to a gentleman, who thought the treasures of Pilnitz by far the most valuable of any which our native land possesses. I was rather astonished at this remark, till I recollected that I was conversing with botanists; and it must gratify you to hear, in what high repute the extensive learning of our elector stands. This is just; but I would rather see him now and then in Thüringen, examining the roads, and visiting the people. The plants will thrive, and the stars follow their right course; but on the roads, and among the people, all is not as he himself would wish it. The prince is good and just; he is honoured and beloved. I would pledge my head that he might, at the side of any single peasant, walk securely through his dominions. His people would welcome him—woe, therefore, to the man, who shall excite suspicion in his mind as to his people! I neither fear nor expect any thing from princes; and may, therefore, with propriety speak of them with manly freedom.

At Ploen, I passed an hour with M. von Hennings at the castle, and was sorry I could not stay longer. This little town is neat enough; but the lake is a wild sort of beauty. The peninsula behind the garden is romantic; the banks, however, are too little cultivated, and have a dead appearance. It is life, only which speaks home to the heart of man, The eye looks for objects, with which it can combine human beings, and when it cannot find these, it causes a train of ideas like Young's Night Thoughts, of which every one wishes to be rid. Such was the effect which the water had on me here, and at Eutin. The prospects are very fine for a few minutes, and if the bustle of mankind were added to them, they would be so for many days.

At Eutin, my soul was with him who no longer inhabits the place, and I sought him in idea, on the Saal, and on the Rhine.

To day I reached Lubeck in good time. I have taken a walk through the town, and another round it. I have written this letter to you, and to-morrow I proceed to Hamburgh. Farewell.

LETTER XI.

Leipzig, 1st October, 1805.

HERE I am in my old hermitage again! Between Lubeck and this place I saw but little worthy of recording to you; for the road and objects of curiosity are well known to every German who has read a System of Geography, and a newspaper.

At Hamburgh, the postillion drove me to a large inn, called, I believe, Kaiser's Hof, which is exactly opposite to all the Emperors in the Senate-house. The divisions of this house seem to me very like those of the German empire. You study for a long time in hopes of discovering the plan on which they were formed, and at last you perceive that there was no plan. We find the fabric, however, convenient enough in spite of its irregularity, and should be sorry to see it demolished.

I must conscientiously bear favourable testimony to the inhabitants of Hamburgh; but I should not like to live amongst them. The town is too large for me—the streets, with a very few exceptions, too narrow and dark. It appears to me, in some respects, like a German Venice, where every cubic inch of land especially near the canals, is sold by mercantile measurement for gold. This may suit the gentlemen of the counting-house vastly well; but I should be afraid of thrusting my elbows into the sides of passengers, as I walked. Here and there buildings are pulled down, and light admitted. I only hope the ground will not be sold again to the dealers in darkness.

The only walk in the town has been somewhat widened, but is still narrow enough, and not equal to a principal street in Petersburg. The trees, which have been planted there, do not seem properly attended to. Many of them have failed, and should be immediately replaced by others before the healthy ones have grown too much. The pavilion, with refreshments in the centre, belongs to a foreigner, and is a very neat place.

The Hamburgh merchants are famed for giving good dinners, and I found the report true. Still they do not exceed the general luxury of the times, and in some respects do not equal it. Perhaps the blockade of the Elbe may have operated as a sort of warning, and produced more economy. The inhabitants have certainly a satisfied jolly appearance, which is surely far preferable to a lean hungry one, whatever my friend Merkel may say to the contrary.

I found Iffland here, and not only saw him on the stage,

but spent several hours with him. Perhaps you do not know him as a companion. A conversation with him, when he is in a lively mood, is worth more than one of his best parts on the stage. I only saw him once publicly, it was in the character of Riem, which you will remember to be in his own play called the Dowry. He seemed, as I thought, to exert himself very much, and yet could not come properly into play with the other performers; they could not rise to him, nor he descend to them. I found them indeed far below my expectation, and if I did not know to a certainty that Schröder was lately here, I should never have believed that several of them had enjoyed his tuition; at least they have made a wretched use of it. How it happens I know not; but the theatre is a poor one—for Hamburgh a very poor one. I believe that half of the company cannot read—I mean in a rational way. There was only one whom I thought a good actor—he performed the President, if I am not mistaken. The man, who personated the Stranger, began tolerably well; but soon became a miserable croaker, and the Privy Counsellor ranted most furiously. Still there may be better among them, and I fancied that I discovered merit in one or two of the subaltern performers. I ought not to decide positively from a single representation. It is said that when any performer applied to Eckhof for an engagement, he always presented a chosen book, and desired the applicant to read. He then requested him to walk up and down in a spacious room. These trials were sufficient to guide his decision. Were they to be in force every where, how many would be dismissed from our stages! The women were better than the men, which is seldom the case. The way into and out of the theatre reflects great disgrace on Hamburgh. The house itself is bad enough; but even in the worst little towns of Poland, such contemptible corners are scarcely to be found as the two alleys by which the company enter and return from it.

I must be allowed another short remark. In order to give more room for the spectators, the orchestra has been thrown into the pit. There is not much to be said against this, except that the music suffers by it; but the place itself is furnished with such wretched broken benches, that its appearance is vile; and yet there were ladies and gentlemen of the first *ton* in it.

If I were to give you a description of the views between Altona and Blankenese, I should fill a volume. The Blankenesers used to hold a very low place in my estimation; for I was told that they and the inhabitants of Helgoland were the little corsairs of the North Sea; and I believe still that

they are not quite guiltless of the charge. You have probably heard of what is called the *Strand Law*. It is here strictly enforced; and shameful it is that such a practice should be suffered to continue. Methinks I never heard of it among the Greeks, the Romans, or Phœnicians. If people were guilty of such actions among them, they called the wretches by their real name—pirates. Shall we be told that this law is likewise sanctioned by Christianity, as has been asserted with respect to the base inhumanity practised against the negroes of Africa?—If it were so, well might religion hide her blushes in the mines of Potosi. Did one ever hear of such barbarity as to decimate the unfortunate?—*Decimate!* The term is too mild—they absolutely *tertiate* them; for the Christian who stretches forth his hand to save his fellow-christian's property, is *legally* entitled to a third part of it. Would that the strand-law were stranded without redemption!

Blankenese, as the name seems to indicate, must formerly have been a wild bleak spot; but building is now so prevalent that the villas of Hamburgh merchants form one long row to this place. The prospect from the hill up the river to the town, affords a fine picture of rich cultivation. But it must be still more gratifying from the Hanoverian coast on the other side of the Elbe, where at one glance you may survey the city and the northern banks of the river studded with country-seats.

My numerous friends in Hamburgh made the days seem much shorter than the calendar described them, and I left the place with much regret.

Thus, then, ends my fishing expedition; for you may, if you like, suppose that to have been my object, and I have made a tolerable circuit in search of it. I began with the Elbe, and ended with the Elbe. I have visited the Oder, the Vistula, the Niemen, the Dwina, the Embach, the Neva, and the Volga! How rich are these in fish, not to mention all the lakes! At Moscow there were fish out of the Black Sea, the White Sea, and the Caspian. My good fortune too led me into the society of those, who had them at table. The district also bordering on the Gulphs of Finland and Bothnia, as well as the Baltic down to the North Sea, produced plenty of the finny tribes, from the salmon to the minnow.

After I had submitted my Danish pass to the inspection of the French ambassador, (for unfortunately we cannot now travel through our native country, or indeed hardly take a step without permission from the all-powerful ruler on the Seine) I quietly went in a boat up the Elbe to Luneburg. Gall arrived just as I came away. I lament that I am always doomed to miss him; for I should like very much to hear a

lecture on his system. It does not suit me to study it at second-hand. Except in the anatomical part, I understand there is nothing very new in it.

The French put no questions to me at Luneburg; and as I proceeded I met with no more of them, as they had formed a junction for the purpose of undertaking something important.

Cultivation and management ought to be more an object of attention between Luneburg and Brunswick. I cannot be persuaded that the soil is of so ungrateful a nature if it were judiciously treated. It is truly desirable that this should be more narrowly examined into by persons well versed in agricultural affairs.

At Brunswick I was almost overpowered on entering the house of M. Schmidt by the smell of his cichory-coffee. This and tobacco are most singular and unaccountable instances of modern taste. The wretch who is scarcely able to procure bread, must have tobacco, and cannot exist without the black bitter infusion of burnt coffee, or its substitutes. In this neighbourhood there were large portions of ground planted with cichory.

Kamp's retreat here has probably more of *Sans Souci* in it than the one on a large scale at Potsdam. It is seldom the lot of kings to be devoid of care; and it would be easy to prove that Frederick felt the heaviest of his cares when at *Sans Souci*.

The weather was fine as I passed old father Brocken, and I looked up at his summit with a wish to be there. If I could have spared a few days more, I should certainly have gratified myself; for I have never been in the new house at the summit. When I last visited the spot, the foundation-stone was just laid, and I slept among the workmen. I could now discern it plainly through the denser atmosphere which envelopes the mountain.

At Halberstadt, I wandered about sun-set to the garden, in which lie the remains of my parental friend and benefactor, the venerable Gleim. Lower down the Elbe I had stood at the grave of Klopstock, and done homage to his genius. Here I did more—I acknowledged with heartfelt sincerity the endless debt of gratitude I owed, and paid the tributary tear. Here, on the very spot which now bears his monument, I have sitten with himself, and warmly conversed on what is great and good. Let malice and detraction rake up his foibles—Gleim was a worthy upright man. Had I been as intimately acquainted with Klopstock, I should perhaps have been equally attached to him; but our connection was a literary and a distant one. I cannot omit this opportunity of relating to you a trifling circumstance, which I esteem rather to my credit. You

know that when Klopstock's Odes and Messiah were printed, I was the corrector of the press. The old gentleman maintained high authority, and always referred me in a dictatorial tone to his manuscript, which, however, was not destitute of little errors. This used to create differences between us; and I one day wrote him a letter couched in very plain terms, acknowledging his great superior merits, but pointing out a number of little inaccuracies. He acknowledged these reluctantly by a verbal message; but he afterwards told Herder (as Herder himself assured me) that I had treated him most cruelly. My justification is his own copy. His only fault was that he fancied himself infallible in minute points. A single example.— In one of his odes, (I believe The Stars,) all the former editions printed a line thus:

"Vater, so rufen wir an."

It appeared to my ear that the metre positively required the last word to be omitted, and I wrote to him accordingly, inclosing the sheet of letter-press for his correction, if he pleased. He underlined the word *again*, which I had struck out—then erased his mark—then wrote the word again above—then blotted it out—and thus he returned the proof without a single remark. It is evident how anxious he was to save the word, but his ear would not allow it, and Göschen's edition is the only one, in which, through my perseverance, this line is rightly printed.

I had been a day in travelling from Brunswick to Halbertstadt, and was another in going from Halbertstadt to Könnern. It was the latter end of harvest, and the horses so busily employed in leading corn, that I could not without difficulty procure any. I would willingly have taken my knapsack on my back, and could have proceeded rather quicker on foot; had I not made a promise to my fellow-travellers that I would accompany them to Leipzig.

I am sorry to remark (but truth demands it) that during my whole summer's tour I have no where seen places which had so poor and ruinous an appearance as the Prussian towns from Brunswick to this place. Halberstadt, Aschersleben, and Könnern, exhibit a picture of poverty in every respect. The villages, however, have a lively air, and excite sensations agreeable to the traveller.

The regiments were every where under orders to be ready for a march at a short notice, yet no one knew his destination. All were eager for battle, and no one knew with whom. Such is the genuine character of thoughtless man! But we must not be rash, and ascribe this to an innate cruelty of disposition,

and love of murder. There is unfortunately but a small share of purity in state arrangements, and as long as the term soldier is considered a distinguished honourable title, the share of rationality is not great. The term soldier, if we trace it to its origin, probably means a hireling, one who serves for money; and in general he has been made the instrument of despotism. To the warrior who sheds his blood for the cause of justice and his country, let due honour be given; but to this the soldier, merely as such, can have little claim. Soldiers are, however, men; and not bad men. They lead a life of compulsion and inactivity; both of which are far from being congenial with human nature. They rejoice, therefore, in obtaining a scope for action on any condition, and prefer battle, at the risk of life, to perpetual nothingness.

At Halle, my poor knapsack had a seal put upon it, after having travelled from Palermo to Moscow in perfect freedom with all its contents.—Yet no—at Vienna and Aberfors it was searched to the bottom.

The conversation here still turned sometimes upon the famine of last summer. From all that I have learnt, there were faults on each side, as is generally the case. The punishment of the insurgents was not severe; but if all that I heard be true, it was irregular, and as such it bordered on injustice.

Schnorr was just returned from a tour through Switzerland, and welcomed me as heartily as ever.

Here then, my dear friend, my communications close. During the holidays I shall take a trip to Dresden and Weimar—then sit down to my Greek and pedagogical labours again in good earnest.—Adieu.

END OF SEUME'S TOUR.

INDEX TO SEUME.

ANALYSES

OF

NEW VOYAGES AND TRAVELS,

LATELY PUBLISHED IN LONDON.

Travels through the Canadas; containing a description of the picturesque scenery on some of the rivers and lakes; with an account of the productions, commerce, and inhabitants of those provinces: to which is subjoined a comparative view of the manners and customs of several of the Indian nations of North and South America. By George Heriot, Esq. deputy postmaster general of British North America. Illustrated with a map and numerous engravings, from drawings made at the several places, by the author.—One volume 4to. pp. 602. Price 2l. 15s. LONDON, PHILLIPS, 1807.

AN authentic account of our only remaining settlements in North America, would be, at any period, of considerable interest: but at the present epoch such a work as the one before us derives additional importance, inasmuch as it exhibits the actual and intrinsic value of those possessions of which we should in all probability be deprived, were we to involve ourselves in a war with the United States. It ought also to be mentioned, that this volume of Travels is not the ephemeral production of an ordinary Tourist; but has been composed from the continual observations of a gentleman, who has resided in Canada nearly twenty years. From the author's preface it appears, that his original design was to convey an idea of some of the picturesque scenery of the St. Laurence, which is one of the largest and most wonderful bodies of fresh water on the earth; but when he had resolved to present his remarks and sketches to the British public, he made the text more perfect and interesting, by adding to

the description of the scenes in Canada, an account of the climate and productions of the country, of the manners and character of the inhabitants, as well as those of the domiciliated Indians, and of the tribes who make excursions to the borders of the extensive lakes.

Mr. Heriot derived great advantage from the documents which he found in the library of the Jesuits, at Quebec; and, he adds, that a considerable portion of the information which he has published, has been obtained from living observations, communicated by gentlemen of undoubted veracity.

It may therefore be imagined, that the work which we are about to analyse, is the most interesting and complete account of Canada which has yet issued from the press,

THE AZORES.

On his way to America, the author touched at the Azores islands, which have so often been cursorily described, as to leave little room for novel observation; yet, as they are the general rendezvous of ships which cross the Atlantic, such particulars as Mr. Heriot has noted respecting them, can neither be deemed inappropriate to our purpose, nor prove unacceptable to our readers; many of whom may anticipate an opportunity of verifying the statements which we are about to lay before them.

It is the general opinion that the rugged precipices of the Azores, which vary in degrees of elevation, as well as in form and extent of bases, owe their origin to violent volcanic eruptions. The tops of the most lofty of these mountains, says Mr. Heriot, are usually discoverable above the clouds, which rest or float upon their sides, and which their stupendous height attracts amid the cooler regions of the atmosphere. The acclivities, in proportion to their distance from the sea, increase in magnitude and elevation, and in many situations abruptly rise into enormous piles, crowned with cliffs naked and barren, except where the sides are sparingly shagged with stunted trees and brushwood. The soil is in general fertile, abounding in corn, grapes, oranges, lemons, and a variety of other fruits; and is likewise favourable for breeding of cattle, sheep, and other animals. Fish of various kinds are found in great abundance all around the coasts; and the woods and high lands present a multitude of birds of different descriptions. Animals of a noxious nature are said to be here unknown. Saint Michael, Santa Maria, Tercera, Saint George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo, are the several names by which these islands are distinguished.

The first is by far the most extensive, and lies in a direction

from south-east to north-west. It is about fifty-four miles in length, but of an irregular breadth, exceeding not fifteen miles, and being at the centre not wider than six miles. The number of inhabitants is estimated at nearly eighty thousand.

Ponta del Gada, the principal town, is situated on the south side, and contains about twelve thousand inhabitants. The streets are regular. and of convenient width, and the churches and religious houses, as well as other public edifices, may be termed rather elegant. Convents and nunneries are placed in various situations throughout the country. The town is built along the sea-coast; the land behind it rises at first with gradual ascent, and afterwards more abruptly, the view terminating by a congeries of conical hills. A mountain on the west towers above these, and is of a handsome form, its summit having a table appearance. In this is an ancient crater filled with water, whose depth has not yet been ascertained. There is no harbour in the vicinity of the town, and vessels are usually anchored at a considerable distance from shore, in an open and unsheltered road. That part of the island in which the capital is placed, forming a gentle acclivity of considerable extent, is well cultivated, and divided with no small degree of taste into spacious fields planted with Indian corn, wheat, barley, and pulse; two crops of these are annually produced. Country houses are frequently interspersed with orchards of orange trees, whose fruit is superior to that which grows in the southern parts of Europe.

Ribeira Grande, the second town in point of magnitude, is placed on the north side of the island, and contains nearly as many inhabitants as the chief city. In it are two convents, one of Franciscan friars, another of nuns.

Villa Franca, about eighteen miles east of Ponta del Gada, on the south side of the island, forms the third town. It likewise contains a convent of Franciscan friars, and one with about three hundred nuns. A small island opposite to this place, and about half a mile from the shore, possesses a basin, with a narrow entrance, where fifty vessels might anchor in security. Smaller towns, and a variety of hamlets are scattered throughout the country. The surf of the sea breaks with considerable violence, and with unceasing agitation, all round the coast.

The hot baths are situated in the eastern part of the island, and the road leading from the capital thither, is by Villa Franca; from thence it rises by a gradual ascent for about twelve miles, until it attains the summit of the elevated lands by which these baths are environed. The descent into the valley is by a steep, narrow, and winding path. This extraordinary gulph is about twelve miles in circumference, surrounded by lofty and abrupt

precipices, and accessible only by three ways, cut with labour out of the cliffs. The soil below is fertile and well cultivated, producing copious harvests of wheat and Indian corn. The inclosures are adorned with hedge-rows of Lombardy poplars, which rise in pyramidal shapes, and exhibit a pleasing appearance. The gloomy faces of the surrounding rocks are shaded and varied by evergreens, consisting of laurels, myrtles, fayas, pao-sanguintro, tamujus, uvæ de serra, and a number of other shrubs and vines. Streams of crystalline water, interrupted in their downward course, dash with impetuosity and foaming fury from rock to rock, and collecting in deep, stony basins beneath, thence issue in serpentine rivulets, which intersect the valley in a variety of directions; in some situations, rushing on with murmuring sound; in others, creeping along with a smooth and silver surface. These, together with the appearance of the boiling fountains, from whence clouds of steam are continually thrown up; a lake, well stocked with water-fowl; blackbirds, and other feathered songsters of the grove, enlivening by their melody; fruits, and aromatic plants, yielding the most grateful odours, contribute to form a combination of objects, highly pleasing, and wildly picturesque.

The valley, which is named Furno, contains a number of boiling fountains; the most remarkable of these, the cauldron, is situated upon a small eminence, being a circular basin of thirty feet in diameter, whose water, boiling with ceaseless agitation, emits a quantity of vapour. At a few paces distant from hence is the cavern Boca de Inferno, throwing out, for a considerable way from its mouth, quantities of water mixed with mud, accompanied by a noise like thunder. Around this spot, and within the compass of an acre of land, there are upwards of a hundred fountains of the same kind; and even in the midst of a rivulet which runs by it, are several of these springs, so hot as to be insupportable to the touch. In other places the sulphureous vapours issue with such force from a number of apertures in the overhanging cliffs, as to suggest to the fancy an idea of the place being inhabited by a thousand fabled Cyclops, occupied with their bellows and forges, in fabricating thunder. The surface of the ground is covered in many places with pure sulphur, which has been condensed from the steam, and which, like hoar frost, is arranged in sharp-pointed, stellated figures.

Not far distant from these hot springs, there are others of a nature extremely cold, particularly two, whose waters possess a strong mineral quality, accompanied by a sharp, acid taste. About half a mile to the westward of this place, and close by the side of a river, there are likewise several sulphureous fountains, whose waters have been used with eminent success, by

persons afflicted with scrophulous disorders. Under the declivity of a hill, westward from Saint Ann's church, are found springs of a similar kind, which are much used by the neighbouring inhabitants. These flow in currents from a precipice, and are some of a hot, others of a cold temperature, although only a few feet asunder.

To the westward of these is placed the lake, whose circumference is only three miles, and whose water is of a greenish colour, being powerfully impregnated with sulphur. On its north side there is a small plain, where the earth, perforated in a thousand places, incessantly emits sulphureous exhalations. Thither, during the heat of the day, the cattle repair to avoid being tortured by flies.

The united waters of the springs produce a considerable river, called Ribeira Quente, running for a course of nine miles, through a deep rent in a mountain, and discharging itself into the sea, on the south side of the island. Along the precipices, which confine it on either side, several spots emit smoke; and in the sea at some distance from its mouth, there are springs which boil up so strongly, that their heat is sensibly felt at the surface.

The Furno contains two parishes and about a thousand inhabitants, whom necessity compelled to pass the mountains, and to cultivate a spot which was formerly believed to be inhabited by dæmons. Many years elapsed before the other inhabitants of the island began to visit it; but, since the healing qualities of the waters have been discovered, many invalids, as well as others, have resorted thither; and notable effects have been produced by their use upon those afflicted by the gout, scrophula, and other cutaneous maladies.

The eastern and western parts of the island rise into lofty mountains; but the center, which is lower, is interspersed with a variety of conical hills, every one of which discovers evident tokens of volcanic eruptions. Their summits are hollowed into basins, containing a quantity of water. On the west side of the island another gulph is to be viewed, not less singular and extraordinary than that already described, which is known by the appellation of *Seté Cidades*, or the seven cities; and whose extent is double that of the Furno. It is surrounded by steep precipices, and contains a fine lake of considerable depth, and two leagues in circumference. No hot springs have been discovered in its vicinity, nor do the waters possess any mineral quality. It has no visible discharge, and is on a level with the sea. The mountains which form the boundaries of the valley, appear to have experienced the most violent and uncommon

changes. They are composed entirely of white pomice-stone, unmixed with black lava, affording unquestionable indications of the operations of a volcano, and of its more elevated parts having subsided into the centre of the mountain. There are two hills placed in the bottom of the valley, whose craters are yet open, although almost overgrown by shrubs.

The lower parts of the island are very fertile, and in a state of high cultivation. The soil in general consists of decomposed pomice-stone, which is easily worked; and it usually yields two crops every year.

A vegetable called tremosa, or blue lupin, supplies the deficiency of animal manure. It is sown on the fields with the first rains in Septembr, and from the effects of moisture and warmth, growing to a very rank state, about the end of November it is mowed down, left for a few days to flag, aud is afterwards plowed into the ground.

Oranges and lemons abound throughout the country; the first are of an excellent quality, ripen earlier than those produced in Portugal, and are brought sooner to market. The best kind of orange is raised by layers. Water melons grow abundantly in the fields. The farms produce wheat, Indian corn, and calavancés. Vines are also cultivated on tracts of black lava bordering on the sea coast; but their juice is thin and feeble, soon acquiring an acid taste.

The convents and other religious establishments placed in various situations along the borders of the island, and constructed of a white coloured stone, produce a pleasing effect when viewed from the sea.

The aromatic herbs, trees, and fruits, perfume the atmosphere with their sweets; and the breeze thus impregnated, becomes, when blowing from the land, highly grateful to the traveller in sailing along the shore.

The island of Pico, from the superior altitude of one of its mountains, is the most remarkable of all the Azores. From the village of Guindasté to the summit of the peak, the distance is stated to be nine miles. The road passes through a wild, rugged, and difficult country, which is entirely covered with brushwood. When, at seven o'clock in the morning, we arrived at the skirts of the mountain, which form the region of the clouds, the wind became extremely cold, attended by a thick mist, the thermometer falling to forty-eight degrees, and at eight o'clock to forty-seven. About ten we arrived at the boundary of the ancient crater, and the sun then acquiring power, the thermometer rose to forty-eight degrees. This appears to have been more than a mile in circumference. The southern and western boundaries yet remain, but those of the north and east have

given way, and have tumbled down the side of the mountain. In the center of the old crater, a cone of three hundred feet in perpendicular height is thrown up, on the summit of which is the present mouth. The ascent of this is very steep and difficult; and it contains several apertures from which smoke is emitted. It is formed of a crust of lava, of the consistence of iron that has once been in a state of fusion.

At the hour of half past ten we gained the top of the peak, which is singularly sharp and pointed, being about seven paces in length, and about five in breadth. The crater is on the north side, and below the summit is about twenty paces in diameter, and is continually emitting smoke. It is almost filled with burnt rocks. From hence several of the neighbouring islands are presented to the view. Pico, seen from the peak, exhibits an appearance no less singular than romantic; the eastern part rises into a narrow ridge, along which are many ancient volcanos which have long ceased to emit smoke, and several of whose craters are now almost concealed by woods, which have sprung up around them. The basis of the peak presents likewise some remains of smaller volcanos, whose fires are now extinguished. The last eruption of the peak, which happened in 1718, burst forth from its side, and destroyed a great part of the vineyards.

It is on elevated situations like this, that is felt *that* influence which the vast and unbounded theatre, at once laid open to contemplation, is capable of exciting,—Those inspirations of nature, so eloquent and so animated—that attractive impulse which attunes the soul to harmony with her works—that distinctive character which the Creator hath imprinted on the heart—innate traces of which peculiar minds are delighted in feeling, amid the rude and sublime masses produced by explosions of the globe, or amid the less stupendous ruins of the monuments of human grandeur.

The whole of the lower grounds of this island are planted with vines; and having been entirely covered with black lava, the labour in digging and clearing it away must have been considerable. When the vines are planted, the surface of the soil is again thinly strewed with lava, over which the young shoots are suffered to run.

The height of the peak from the surface of the water, is about eight thousand perpendicular feet.

When viewed from the sea the peak assumes the appearance of a cone, almost regular, of immense magnitude, having a smaller cone rising from one side of its summit, which is that already described. This mountain rears its elevated head far above the clouds, which float around its craggy sides, and is visible to the extent of many leagues.

NEWFOUNDLAND AND ITS COD-FISHERIES.

Having taken our departure from the Azores, says Mr. Heriot, we proceeded on the voyage to North America, and on arriving at the Banks of Newfoundland, a number of vessels, stationed at various distances, and seemingly at anchor, occurred to our view. These we soon understood to be engaged in the cod fishery. They are, in general, from eighty to one hundred and fifty tons burden, fitted out from several places in England, particularly from the western counties, and from the islands of Jersey and Guernsey. There are, besides, vessels belonging to the fishermen who winter in Newfoundland, and at the settlements on the neighbouring parts of the continent.

The Great Bank, which is about forty leagues distant from the island, is an enormous mountain formed beneath the surface of the sea. Its extent is about a hundred and sixty leagues, and its breadth about sixty, the extremities terminating in points. On the eastern side, towards the centre, a kind of bay is formed; called the Ditch. The depth of water varies much throughout the whole, being in some situations sixty, in others only five fathoms. During the hottest weather the fish do not frequent either the great or the smaller banks, but retire to the deep waters. It has been remarked by many people, that on approaching the banks the noise of the billows of the ocean become more shrill and loud, an effect which is probably produced by the shallowness of the waters.

The thick fogs which are here more prevalent than in any other part of the Atlantic, exhibit a singular phenomenon, and may be presumed to owe their origin to the stream from the gulph of Mexico, the discharge of waters incessantly accumulating there by the pressure of the trade winds.

The system of philosophy introduced by Sir Isaac Newton, maintains that the combined attractive influence of the sun and moon, and the centrifugal force of the water arising from the diurnal motion of the earth around its axis, elevate that liquid element at the equator to a much greater height than at the poles; and the degree of elevation is in proportion to the alternate advancement, or decline, of the power of these luminaries. This immense collection of waters, impelled by its own gravitation, by the attraction of the earth, and by the force of the winds operating with those causes, moves onwards in a western direction, flows through the chain of Caribbean islands, and enters the Mexican gulph between the island of Cuba and the promontory of Yucatan. Opposed by the surrounding coasts it pursues its way out of the gulph between Florida and the Bahama islands, assumes a course to the northward, and thus runs in the direction of the coast of North America, being at the nearest seventy-five

miles distant from it, and receding still further, in proportion to its progress. Its breadth is about forty-five miles, and its rapidity is about four miles in an hour. The banks of Newfoundland appear to form the limits of its advancement towards the north; and it diverges from thence, passing through the Azores to the southward, until its impulse becomes gradually lost. Retaining a great portion of the heat which it imbibed in the tropical climate, on its arrival at the banks of Newfoundland, it is from fifteen to twenty degrees of Fahrenheit warmer than the water on each side of it, from which it differs not only in this respect, but in darkness of colour and greater depth of soundings. Whenever, therefore, the degree of temperature in the atmosphere becomes colder than that of those waters, a vapour will necessarily arise from them, which is condensed, and frequently covers these situations with a moist and thick air.

The cod-fish, whose abundance in these latitudes has afforded for a series of years an essential object of commercial enterprise, is esteemed much more delicate than that found in the northern seas of Europe, although inferior to it in whiteness. The length of this fish usually exceeds not three feet, and the conformation of its organs is such, as to render it indifferent with regard to the selection of its aliment. The voracity of its appetite prompts it indiscriminately to swallow every substance which it is capable of gorging; and even glass and iron have been found in the stomach of this fish, which by inverting itself, has the power of becoming disburthened of its indigestible contents.

The fishermen arrange themselves along the side of the vessel, each person being provided with lines and hooks. When a fish is caught, its tongue is immediately cut out, and it is delivered to a person, in whose hands it having undergone a certain degree of preparation, is dropped through a hatchway between decks, where part of the back bone is taken out, and the cod is thrown in this state, through a second hatchway into the hold, to be salted. When a quantity of fish, sufficient to fill one of the vessels, is caught and salted, she sails from the banks to the island, where, discharging her cargo, she returns to her station, and, in the course of the season, thus renews four or five different freights.

The cod-fish is dried on the island, and larger vessels arrive from England, to convey it from thence to the European markets. In packing the fish in bulk, in the hold of the vessel, much care and attention are requisite; and the greatest precautions are used in loading, to preserve them from exposure to the moisture of the atmosphere, by spreading sails and cloths over the boats in which they are contained, and over those fish already in the vessel, if the smallest degree of dampness in the air be observable. A person, denominated *culler* or inspector, attends the loading of

each vessel, in order to see that no fish which is not perfectly cured, be introduced into the cargo, which otherwise might soon become damaged.

The price of fish cured at Newfoundland, is generally fifteen shillings the quintal, and it neats in Europe about twenty shillings. The expence of its freight to the coast of Spain, is two shillings and sixpence, and to Leghorn three shillings, the quintal.

The dried fish, sent to the West Indies, is packed in casks, and is inferior in quality to that carried to Europe. The fish which is salted without being dried, is termed Core-fish, or green cod. A vessel with twelve men, from the middle of April to July, must catch, salt, and bring into port, ten thousand fish, otherwise the owners will be excluded from all claim to the established bounty. The same crew, however, usually procures, during the season, more than double that quantity.

The merchants of England who are concerned in these fisheries, supply the fishermen upon credit with every article of which they may be in want, and are repaid at the fall of the year, with the produce of their industry. Several hundred thousand pounds are thus annually advanced, in speculation, on an object of commerce, before it is extracted from the bosom of the ocean.

About four hundred ships, amounting to thirty-six thousand tons burthen; two thousand fishing shallops, of twenty thousand tons, and twenty thousand men, are, in times of tranquillity, usually employed every year in this fishery. About six hundred thousand quintals of fish are annually taken, which, upon an average of seven years, are worth at the island, fifteen shillings per quintal. These, with the other amounts, consisting of salmon, cod-oil, seal-oil, and furs, exceed annually half a million sterling. Of twenty thousand men from Great Britain and Ireland, employed in that fishery, eight thousand necessarily continued, when their country was not at war, on the island all the winter. Several thousand still remain there during that season, and are occupied in repairing or building boats and small vessels, or in erecting the scaffolds for drying fish. These are not properly seafaring men, and are distinguished by the denomination of *planters*.

INHABITANTS OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

Newfoundland, which in point of magnitude may be classed among islands of the first extent, is, in fertility of soil, as far as it has hitherto been explored, much inferior to any of similar dimensions. Whether it ever had native inhabitants has not been fully ascertained, and its sterility, were it even as real as is supposed, is not a sufficient reason for asserting that it never had any; as the natives of America, in general, derive their subsistence, not from the vegetable productions of the soil, but from fishing and the chase. The Eskimaux are the only people who have been

found there, and they are by no means to be accounted aborigines of the country. The neighbouring territory of Labrador is their native land, where they pass the greatest part of the year; and, unattached to any particular spot, wander over an immense tract of desert and inhospitable wilds, although their numbers, if collected, would scarcely people two or three villages. Throughout this prodigious and dreary expanse of region, called by the Spaniards Labrador, and by the French, New Brittany, which is bounded by the river Saint Lawrence and the North Sea, and also by the coasts of Newfoundland, no savages, the Eskimaux excepted, are to be met with. They are likewise found at a considerable distance from Hudson's Bay, on rivers which flow from the westward.

Their name is said to be derived from a word in the Abinaquis language, *Esquimantsic*, importing, an eater of raw flesh; they being the only people known in North America who use their food in that state. They are likewise the only savages who permit their beards to grow. They assume the appellation of *Keralite*, or *men*. They are of a middling stature, generally robust, lusty, and of a brown colour. The oil of the whale, and that of the sea-cow and porpus, constitutes the most essential part of their food, contributing to defend the stomach from the penetrating effects of cold.

The nature of their aliment imparts to their constitution that fulness, and to their complexion that greasy sallowness for which they are remarked. Their head is large in proportion, and their face round and flat; their lips are thick; their eyes dark, small and sparkling, but inexpressive; their nose is flat; their hair black, long, and lank; their shoulders are large; and their feet uncommonly small. They are disposed to be lively, are subtile, cunning, addicted to theft, irritable, but easily intimidated; and incapable of long entertaining, or concealing, sentiments of hatred or revenge. They are the only people on the continent of America, who, in character or appearance, exhibit the smallest resemblance to the inhabitants of the northern parts of Europe.

Their covering is made of the skins of seals, or of wild animals, or of those of the land and sea fowls which frequent their territory, and which they have acquired the art of sewing together. A species of capuchin, or coat with a hood, fitted closely to the body, and descending to the middle of the thigh, forms a principal part of their dress. They wear also trowsers of the same materials, drawn together before and behind with a cord. Several pairs of socks, with boots, are worn by both sexes, to defend the legs and feet from the penetrating cold. The dress of the women is distinguished from that of the men by a tail, which falls a considerable way down, by their capuchins being much larger to-

wards the shoulders, in order to cover their children, when they wish to carry them on their backs; and by their boots being much wider, and ornamented with whalebone. In these they frequently place their infants for safety, and for warmth. Some of the men wear shirts made of bladders of the seacalf, being sewed together with a needle of bone, the thread being formed of the nerves of animals, minutely divided.

They are averse to industry or exertion, and seldom give themselves the trouble of constructing wigwams, or huts. The warmth of their stomach, and the nature of their cloathing, producing a sufficient degree of heat, they are satisfied with the shelter afforded by tents made of hides loosely thrown together, by the rocky caverns of the sea-coast, or by placing themselves to the leeward of a bank of snow. In the caverns they sometimes make use of a lamp, formed of a large hollow bone, containing a quantity of oil; but this is only for the convenience of procuring light, as they appear to be ignorant of the application of fire to culinary purposes. The air proceeding from their lungs is so mephitical and offensive, that two or more of them shut up in a small and close apartment, and thus excluded from free air, would probably not long survive. It is only of late years that spirituous liquors have been introduced among them; and, notwithstanding the severe cold of their climate, a quantity of rum remained for a considerable time in the possession of one of their chiefs, before any of these natives would hazard an experiment of its effects. Fortunate had it been for them if they still continued in ignorance of that liquor, which has proved so baneful to a great portion of the uncivilized inhabitants of America!

The instruments which they use for the chase, and in fishing, are constructed with much neatness and ingenuity. Their bows are composed of three pieces of pine, or larch-tree, which being neither strong nor very elastic, these defects are remedied by fortifying them behind with a band of deer's tendons, which, when wetted, contract, and at once communicate elasticity and force. Ever since they have been visited by Europeans, they have given a preference to the fusil; and whenever that instrument can be procured, the bow falls into disuse.

Like all other men in the savage state, they treat their wives with great coldness and neglect; but their affection towards their offspring is lively and tender. Their language is guttural, and contains but few words; so that they express new ideas, or give names to novel objects, by a combination of terms, indicative of the qualities of the things which they wish to describe.

Their ideas of religion are obscure and contracted. They acknowledge two invisible essences; the one, they represent as the

origin of good; the other, to whom they pay the most frequent homage, as that of every species of evil.

Their canoes are formed with no inconsiderable degree of art, and much industry appears to be bestowed on their construction. They are pointed at each extremity, and are covered with the skins of sea animals. In the upper part, or deck, is an aperture with a bag affixed to it, through which the savage introduces his body, and tying its mouth around his waist, and taking in his hands a paddle which he uses alternately on each side, he shoots through the waves, by which he is tossed and buffeted, whilst the water is unable to penetrate the slender vessel in which he rides.

Newfoundland extends in the form of a triangle, about a hundred leagues from east to west, and a hundred and twenty-five from north to south; being situated between forty-six and fifty-two degrees of north latitude. John Gabato, a Venetian, was its first discoverer, under the patronage of king Henry the Seventh of England. No advantage was derived from thence, until the lapse of a period of near forty years. Cape Race and Cape Ray are the two promontories which present themselves to mariners sailing on the river Saint Lawrence. Eighteen leagues to the westward of the first, appears Cape Saint Mary, which forms the entrance of the bay of Placentia towards the east. This bay is sixteen leagues in breadth, and twenty in depth. Towards its head is the harbour, capable of containing in safety one hundred and fifty vessels, and defended by a fort called Saint Louis. The French were the first Europeans who frequented this situation. Between Placentia and Cape Ray, the western point of the island, two other bays, of considerable extent, penetrate some distance into the country. They are distinguished by the appellations of Fortune and Despair. No settlements have yet been made on their coasts, and they are but little frequented. Cape Ray, together with the island of Saint Paul, about fifteen leagues distant from it, forms the entrance into the gulph of Saint Lawrence; and vessels sailing thither, must pass, in clear weather, in sight of the one or of the other. Besides the bays already noticed, this island contains a variety of others, particularly on the eastern coast, among which two are remarkable for their extent; those of Trinity and Conception. Near the latter is the harbour of Saint John, which is secure and well fortified.

Bordered by dark and gloomy rocks, which exhibit a barren, inhospitable appearance, the country, on a nearer view of its soil, belies not the character of its rude uninviting features, which, amid their nakedness, display neither grandeur nor sublimity. At a league distant from the entrance of Saint John's harbour, no opening in the coast is discernible. A white tower raised on a precipitous eminence, seems rather intended as a mark to warn

vessels of the danger of approaching the rocky shore, than as a beacon to conduct them to a place of safety. On a nearer examination of it, its strength becomes apparent, and no hostile vessel can enter with impunity the narrow chasm beneath. This structure, situated on a part of the precipice, on the south side of the entrance of Saint John, is named Fort Amherst. The inlet, called the Narrows, exceeds not five hundred feet in width. On each side, towards the north, the rocks rise to the altitude of four hundred feet; but on the south shore, they are of less elevation.

Heath, juniper, and wild spruce, the offspring of sterility, sparingly cover the rocky surface. The appearance of the harbour and its environs is, nevertheless, wild and picturesque. In proceeding further up the inlet, a battery, called South Fort, is placed on the left; and another, named Chain-rock, on the right. At a considerable elevation above these, several little forts are seen. A rock, in the form of a cone, is crowned with a battery, constructed under the direction of the late Sir James Wallace, who, in 1796, was vice-admiral on the station, and governor of the island; and with a fifty-gun ship, two frigates, and two sloops of sixteen guns each, made a gallant and successful defence against the attacks of Admiral Richery, whose force consisted of seven ships of the line, and three frigates.

Viewed from the summit of this eminence, the town, and the scaffolds on which the fish are placed to dry present a singular appearance. These scaffolds are generally forty feet high, and consist of several stages, on the rafters of each of which a quantity of brushwood is placed. They are sufficiently strong to support the weight of the green fish, and also, occasionally, of one or two men. These are erected in every situation, as well in the vallies, as on the margins of the perpendicular rocks.

ST. JOHN'S TOWN.—The town of Saint John borders on the basin, and its situation affords no attractions, except to those whom interest or necessity induces to consult the advantage, rather than the pleasure, arising from diversity of local situation. It contains a church and two chapels, one for the catholic religion, the others for persons of the methodist persuasion; also a court house, and a custom-house.

An officer of the customs was, until lately, placed at the head of the law department, and decided not only in civil, but in criminal causes. A gentleman who has been bred to the bar, at present fills the situation of judge of the island. The buildings are mean, and the streets narrow and dirty. Fort Townshend is placed above the town, and contains the house allotted for the governor, with the store-houses and magazines which form a square. From hence, the entrance, the harbour, the narrows

sunk between elevated precipices; and the water, covered with small vessels passing and re-passing, form a lively and busy scene; these, together with the town, and the adjacent country, diversified by lakes with verdant borders, exhibit, in the midst of a barren wild, a combination which may, for a short period, afford the charms of novelty.

Over a place called the Barrens, is a road which leads from Fort Townshend to Fort William, commanding the narrows and the harbour. With the latter, Signal-hill, from whence the approach of ships is announced, communicates. Its perpendicular height from the sea is four hundred and four feet; and it contains, on its summit, two ponds, affording excellent water.

The bay of Bulls lies about twenty-eight miles from Saint John's. The internal parts of the island have never yet been explored by the English. A very small portion of land is at present cultivated, as neither the soil nor climate are favourable to productions necessary for the support of life. The duration of summer is too short; and no kind of grain has sufficient time to arrive at maturity. The winter breaks up in May; and, until the end of September, the air is temperate, during which the progress of vegetation is sufficiently rapid. Hay and grass are here of very indifferent quality. The land is so sparingly covered with soil, that much labour and expence are necessary to produce a crop, which but poorly recompences the industry of the husbandman. The quantity of ground used for the purposes of cultivation, is therefore very small; and the prohibition of the parent state against attempts to colonize, are, by the sterile nature of the country, rendered almost unnecessary. The fishermen are in times of warfare, enjoined to return to England; and the merchant is authorised, to retain from the wages of each person in his employ, a certain proportion as a provision, in case of incapacity from poverty or sickness, for any individual to return to his country. By this prudent regulation, no seaman thus engaged, can be lost to the service of the state.

The English and French long shared between them, the privilege of drying their fish on the coasts of this island; the latter occupying the southern and northern parts, and the former the eastern shores. The interior is composed of mountains, covered with woods of an indifferent quality. The animals found here, are foxes, porcupines, hares, squirrels, lynxes, otters, beavers, wolves, and bears. The chase is difficult, and unattended with profit. The land and water-fowl are partridges, snipes, woodcocks, falcons, geese, ducks, and penguins. In the bays and rivers are found fish of various kinds, such as salmon, eels, herring, mackrel, plaice, trout, and almost every description of shell-fish.

The territory which was requisite to prepare the cod-fish, be-

longed at first to any person who took possession; and from this inconvenience, a source of frequent discord arose. The property of that part of the coast, of which he made choice, was at length, by the interference of government, secured to each fisherman. By this judicious arrangement, expeditions thither were multiplied so greatly, that in 1615, vessels from the British dominions, equal in all to fifteen thousand tons, were employed in the fishery. The value of this island soon became apparent, not only as a source of national wealth, arising from the exchange of fish for the various productions and luxuries, which the southern parts of Europe afford, but what is still of greater importance, as a principal nursery for the navy.

The property of this island was, by the peace of Utrecht, confirmed to Great Britain; and the subjects of France preserved only the right of fishing from Cape Bonavista northwards, to Cape Rich on the opposite side. This line of demarcation was afterwards altered, and placed at Cape Ray, on the western side of the island.

The floating masses of ice, which pass in the vicinity of the eastern coast, and sometimes enter the straits of Belisle, in the summer months, exhibit to mariners an awful and singular spectacle. These enormous mounds, the accumulated operation of cold for a series of years, in the arctic regions, are detached from the coasts near Hudson's Bay, and Davis's Straits, by storms, and other causes. They sometimes exceed an hundred and forty feet in altitude; and their basis beneath the sea, usually doubles those dimensions. Rivulets of fresh water, produced by their gradual dissolution, distil from their summits. We had an opportunity of viewing three of these stupendous piles by the light of the moon, whose rays, reflected in various directions, from their glassy surface, produced an effect no less pleasing than novel. They become either stranded in shallow water, until they are melted down, or grow so porous, that they subside under the surface of the ocean. In fogs, and even in the gloom of night, they are discoverable at some distance, by the cold which they emit, and by their whiteness and effulgence.

ST. PETER'S, MIQUELON, AND CAPE BRETON.

The islands of Saint Peter's and of Miquelon are nothing else than barren rocks, not far from the southern coast of Newfoundland. They were ceded to the French by the treaty of 1763, on condition that no fortifications should be erected, nor more than fifty soldiers kept on them to enforce the police. The former possesses an harbour, capable of containing thirty small vessels. They were inhabited, in times of peace, by a few Frenchmen, for the purpose of carrying on the fishery.

The geographical position of Cape Breton was, many years ago,

ascertained with tolerable accuracy. A narrow passage of about four leagues in length, and scarcely half a league in breadth, named the gut of Canso, separates it from the eastern extremity of the peninsula of Halifax or Nova Scotia. It forms, with the islands of Newfoundland and Saint Paul, the boundaries of the entrance into the gulph of Saint Lawrence. Its figure is very irregular, and it is so intersected by bays and small rivers, that the two principal parts join, only by a neck of not more then eight hundred, paces wide. The soil, in many places swampy, and covered with light moss, is, generally, ill adapted for cultivation. On the lands towards the south side, corn, hemp, and flax, are raised. Coal-mines, and likewise plaster of Paris, are here found.

All the harbours are, on the east, open to the sea; the north coast is elevated, and almost inaccessible. The harbour of Louisbourg, once among the finest in North America, is on the eastern coast, and extends into the country four leagues, in a winding direction, containing good anchorage, and every where at least seven fathoms of water. The entrance, between two small islands, is four hundred yards wide; and by means of Cape Lorembec in its vicinity, is discoverable at sea for a considerable distance. On the fortifications of this harbour, the French expended near a million and a half pounds sterling.

The island, denominated by the French *Ile Royale*, contained, while in their possession, upwards of four thousand inhabitants, whose industry was almost wholly applied to the fisheries; as, from the sterility of the soil, neither agriculture nor breeding of cattle could succeed to any extent, and from the paucity of wild animals, peltry could never become an article of commerce. The island is about thirty-six leagues in length, and twenty-two in its greatest breadth. It is environed by rocks; and the climate, although sufficiently healthy, is not agreeable, being subject to frequent and thick fogs. It was conquered in 1758, by the British forces under General Wolfe. The inhabitants are at present not numerous; and the officer who commands the troops, usually a brigadier-general, in time of war, is invested also with the powers of civil governor. His residence is at Sidney, the capital.

Canada presents few objects which can occupy the enquiries of an antiquarian; and it contains, perhaps, in less variety than many other portions of the globe, productions which can recompence the researches of the naturalist. Its lakes and rivers, it is true, are the vast and principal objects which are calculated to inspire wonder and gratification. The immense volumes, the irresistible weight and velocity of the latter, tearing through and overpowering the obstacles opposed to their course, by the rugged and unequal territories amid which they roll, produce falls and cataracts of singular sublimity, and of commanding beauty; these,

although in some degree similar in effect, are, notwithstanding, inexhaustible in variety.

GULPH OF ST. LAWRENCE.

The Gulph of St. Lawrence, as well as the great river which there disembogues its waters, received its name from Jacques Cartier, who in 1535 ascended as far as Montreal. Its boundaries are the coasts of Labrador, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Newfoundland. The island of St. John, whose name is now changed to that of Prince Edward's island, was first settled by Acadians, in 1749, and their number soon amounted to three thousand. When the English took possession of it, the former people retired to the continent. Its present condition is flourishing, and its inhabitants amount to about seven thousand. The soil, which is level, is in general fertile, is watered by rivulets and springs, is diversified with meadows for pasture, and with situations which would be well adapted for the culture of grain, were it not, that from the frequency of fogs, that article is liable to be destroyed by mildew. The climate is likewise subject to dry weather, when insects and vermin, hostile to vegetable productions, are abundantly propagated. The island is upwards of an hundred and ten miles in length, and its greatest breadth does not much exceed nine. It bends in the form of a crescent, each extremity terminating in a sharp point. The harbours are commodious and safe. Cod-fish is found in great plenty all around its coasts. A channel, five leagues in width, separates it from the continent; and Green Bay, nearly opposite the center of the island, enters the country more than four leagues, forming, with the bay of Fundy, the isthmus, whose breadth is about five leagues, that connects the peninsula of Nova Scotia with the main land. At the bottom of Green Bay the French had some settlements, and a small fort. Several families are now established on that part of the coast, and a road of communication from Pictou to Halifax, has lately been opened.

Not far from the entrance of the gulph, and somewhat to the northwards, the Magdalen isles, which are seven in number, and of small extent, present themselves in a cluster. They are inhabited by a few families, whose principal support is derived from fishing The Bird isles, situated in the gulph, consist of two rocks, elevated above the water, upwards of an hundred feet; their flattened summits, whose circumference exceeds not, each, three hundred paces, exhibit a resplendent whiteness, produced by the quantities of ordure, with which they are covered, from immense flocks of birds, which, in the summer, take posseision of the apertures in their perpendicular cliffs, where they form their nests and produce their young. When alarmed, they hover above the rocks,

and over-shadow their tops by their numbers. The abundance of their eggs affords to the inhabitants of the neighbouring coast, a material supply of food.

A vast inlet, penetrating into the country for a great many leagues to the westward, is called the bay of chaleurs, which being advantageously situated for carrying on fisheries, has, on its borders, a considerable number of inhabitants. Jacques Cartier, in 1534, sailed into this bay, and from the heat which he there experienced in the middle of summer, gave it the name which it still retains. Notwithstanding the more northerly situation of this bay, the cold is not so intense here as at Quebec, being moderated by the sea air. The depth of snow in the woods, during the winter season, is from six to eight feet; but varying according to the different situations, and the degrees of severity in the weather. It is not before the beginning of May, that the influence of the sun upon vegetation is here materially felt; nor is it before that time, that the woods are entirely cleared of snow.

It may be observed as a curious circumstance, that for six, eight, and ten leagues from the shores of this bay, in proceeding into the woods, travellers and huntsmen frequently meet with spots of about two or three acres in surface, entirely bare, and yet surrounded with seven or eight feet depth of snow, which, in times of bad weather, melts as it falls, both on those situations, and on the trees, to which they afford growth. Those spots, in their relative position to the head of the bay, extend from east to west, being usually foundi n that direction; and their denundation of snow may probably be occasioned by subterraneous heat, which approaching nearer to the surface of the ground, produces the effect which has been discribed.

Neither minerals, nor mineral waters, have yet been discovered in this district. The timber which grows here consists of spruce fir, white and black birch, beech, elm, and oak, which being porous, is of little value.

The island of Bonaventure, is about a league from the north shore of the entrance into the bay, and a small number of persons winter on it, for no other purpose than to retain possession of their fisheries. About twenty-one leagues up the bay, there is a parish of the same name with the island.

Cod-fish, salmon, and herrings, are the only productions of commerce derived from the bays of Gaspé and Chaleurs. Ship-building has of late years been here tried with success; but whether or not it will answer in time of peace, is uncertain. There are about three hundred families settled all along the coast of the district of Gaspé, who are chiefly of the Roman Catholic religion, and whose sole occupation is fishing. The produce of their in-

dustry is transported to foreign markets, in from eight to ten square-rigged vessels, besides smaller craft.

The natives of this district are of the Micmac tribe. A few Malicites come thither at times, from the river Saint John and Madawaska. Upon the banks of the river Ristigouche, which empties itself into the bay of Chaleurs, and about eight leagues from its mouth, there is a church, and an Indian village. At Tracadigash, and at the settlement of Bonaventure, there are likewise churches, besides some chapels in the smaller settlements, where the ecclesiastical functions are performed by two, and sometimes by three missionaries.

Agriculture is uncommonly neglected, and in an entire state of infancy. It has of late years been somewhat more attended to than formerly, because the want of salt, an article ever scarce in those parts in time war, and other causes, gave to the fisheries a temporary check, and obliged the inhabitants to secure the means of subsisting their families, by tillage and husbandry. But, it is probable they will, as they have ever done, resume the hook and line, as soon as they have a prospect of encouragement in that their favourite pursuit.

The roads of intercourse between the adjoining settlements are very indifferent; but wherever there is any interruption, by extensive, unsettled parts of the coast, the traveller must have recourse to water communication. Mr. Heriot then describes the routes, after which he observes the only object in this part of the country, which may be considered as a natural curiosity, is the rock called Percé, perforated in three places in the form of arches, through the central and largest of which, a boat with sails set, may pass with great facility. This rock, which, at a distance exhibits the appearance of an aqueduct in ruins, rises to the height of nearly two hundred feet. Its length, which is at present four hundred yards, must have been once much greater, as it has evidently been wasted by the sea, and by the frequent impulse of storms.

The shell-fish procured, in the month of August, from the rivers, and from their mouths near the coast, in the vicinity of Chaleurs bay, are so highly impregnated with a poisonous quality, as to occasion almost instantaneous death to those who eat them. The cause of this circumstance remains yet to be ascertained. Not only in the district of Gaspé, but in most settlements on the Gulph of St. Lawrence, similar effects have been experienced. The period of the year has apparently no other share in producing them, than by the reduction of the quantity of waters which generally takes place in summer. The greater the diminution of waters, the stronger, of course, becomes the proportion of poisonous matter with which these waters are endowed; and this being im-

bibed, especially during ebb tides, by the shell-fish; they are thus productive of consequences, fatal to those who use them as an article of food.

Not only the bird isles, already described, but the island of Bonaventure, and Percé rock, abound in the summer with ganets, which, in prodigious flocks, arrive early in May from the southward. They lay and hatch their eggs, not only on those islands, but on various parts of the coast, where adventurous sportsmen, often with considerable risque ascend and plunder their nests, amid the steep and threatening cliffs. These birds, at that period very fierce, will sometimes by the severity of their bite, directed chiefly at the eyes of the despoiler, force him to retreat. The bay of Gaspé is more than two leagues in depth, and its coasts are inhabited by settlers engaged in the fisheries.

GULPH AND RIVER OF ST LAWRENCE.

The Gulph of St. Lawrence, says Mr. H. is about eighty leagues in length; and when the winds and currents are favourable, its passage does not usually exceed twenty-four hours. The Saint Lawrence, is one of the greatest, most noble, and beautiful rivers, and, at the same time, the furthest navigable for vessels of a large size, of any in the universe. From its mouth to the harbour of Quebec, the distance is one hundred and twenty leagues; and vessels from Europe ascend to Montreal, which is sixty leagues higher up its course.

Cape Rosiers, at a small distance to the northwards of the point of Gaspê, is properly the place which limits the farthest extent of this gigantic river; and it is from thence that the breadth of its mouth, which is ninety miles, must be estimated. They who pretend that its width is one hundred and twenty miles, measure it apparently from the eastern extremity of Gaspé. The mouth of the Saint Lawrence is separated into two channels, by the island of Anticosti, extending from south east to north west, about a hundred and twenty miles, and its utmost breadth about thirty miles. The north channel is little frequented, although safe and of great depth; it is much narrower than the south channel, which is near sixteen leagues wide at its entrance. The island is of little value; the wood which grows upon it is small, the soil is barren, and possesses not a single harbour where a vessel may with safety enter. The country is flat towards the coasts, rising a little in the centre, but no where into hills. Flat rocks extend at each extremity, to a considerable distance from the shores, rendering the approach hazardous. A few savages sometimes winter there, for the purpose of the chase. On passing this island, the land becomes visible on both sides of the river.

A considerable number of rivers flowing through long channels

from the northwards, pour their waters into the Saint Lawrence. The chief of these is the Saguenay, drawing its source from lake Saint John, and running to the eastward through a mountainous and barren region. The lake is about thirty leagues in circuit, and its borders, as well as the surrounding country, are covered with pine trees of a small growth. The Saguenay, which sweeps along a prodigious body of waters, is interrupted in its course by abrupt precipices, over which it dashes its foaming current; and, being bounded by banks of great elevation, is remarkable for the depth and impetuosity of its flood, long before it mingles with the great river. The fall, which is about fifty feet in altitude, is ninety miles distant from the mouth of the river, and is chiefly striking, for the immense sheet of water, which is perpetually broken in its rugged course, and assumes a resplendent whiteness. When viewed from below, the scene is stupenduous and terrific. The incessant and deafening roar of the rolling torrents of foam, and the irresistible violence and fury with which the river hastens down its descent, tend to produce on the mind of the spectator an impression awfully grand. The picturesque and rudely wild forms of the lofty banks, exhibit a gloomy contrast to the lively splendour of the cataract.

The impetuous torrent of the Saguenay, when the tide is low, is sensibly felt in the St. Lawrence, which for a distance of many miles, is obliged to yield to its impulse; and vessels apparently going their course, have thereby been carried sidelong in a different direction.

Besides the fall now described, this river is broken into several rapids or cataracts of lesser height. In many places the banks are rugged and steep, and at intervals, consist of almost perpendicular cliffs of astonishing elevation, some rising to a thousand, and some to six or seven hundred feet. The length of the course of this river is a hundred and fifty miles; its breadth is generally near three miles, except near its mouth, where it contracts to one third of that extent. An attempt has been made, in the centre of its mouth, to sound the depth with five hundred fathoms of line, but no bottom was found. A mile and a half higher up from thence, the depth has been ascertained at one hundred and thirty-eight fathoms; and sixty miles further, in ascending the course of the river, the depth is near sixty fathoms.

Notwithstanding its immense breadth, and the stupendous elevation of its rocky shores, the course of this river is rendered extremely crooked, by points of land which appear to interlock each other; and thus prolong its navigation. The tide ascends to the peninsula of Chicoutami, and, intercepted in its retreat, by these frequent promontories, is much later in its ebb, than that of the Saint Lawrence. The level of the former river, becomes thus,

many feet higher than that of the latter, into whose bosom it rushes, with the boundless impetuosity already remarked.

On the north side of the mouth of the Saguenay, is the harbour of Tadoussac, capable of affording shelter and anchorage, for a number of vessels of a large size. Previous to the establishment of a colony in Canada, this place was frequented, for the purpose of carrying on the fur trade. Several small settlements belonging to goverment, are placed along the northern coast of the Saint Lawrence. These are usually known by the appellation of the *King's Posts*, and are let, for a term of years, to commercial people, for the design of conducting a traffic for peltry with the savages, and also for the salmon, whale, seal, and porpus fisheries. Their several names are, Tadoussac, Chicoutami, seventy-five miles up the Saguenay; a post on Lake Saint John, Ashuabmanchuan, Mistashni, les Isles de Jeremie on the sea, Seven Islands, and Point De-Monts. At these various situations, previous to the year 1802, about eighty Canadians were employed in hunting, and purchasing furs from the Indians in winter, and during summer, in the salmon fishery, for which the river Moisie, eighteen miles below the Seven Islands, afford a most productive field.

Chicoutami is the only situation on the Saguenay, where the soil is fertile, and abounds with timber of an excellent growth. It has been found by experiment, that grain will ripen much sooner there than at Quebec, although placed considerably to the northwards of that city. The vicinity of the sea, to the former, disarms the winter of a portion of its severity, and produces an earlier spring.

AMIABLE SAVAGES.

The natives in possession of the track of country around Lake Saint John, and on the borders of the Saguenay, are named Mountaineers, and are descended from the Algonquins. They are neither so tall, nor so well formed, as the savages that range throughout the north-west country, and are also strangers to that sanguinary ferocity, by which many of the Indian tribes are characterized. They are remarkable for the mildness, and gentleness of their manners, and are never known to use an offensive weapon against each other, or to kill, or wound, any person whatever. Nor can the effects of spirituous liquors, so baneful to other natives, excite them to cruelty, or vindictive passion. Their behaviour is uniformly orderly and decent; their mode of dress is the same as that which now prevails, among the other savages who have intercourse with Europeans; and the stuffs, and silks, for which they exchange their furs, are often rich and costly.

Their whole number is about thirteen hundred; nearly one-half being converted to the Christian faith, and the other half

being Pagans. A missionary sent from Quebec, resides among them; and chapels, where divine service is performed, are erected at the principal posts. Repeated efforts, and much persuasion have been used, to prevail on these savages to cultivate the lands, and to plant Indian corn, or potatoes. They have not, however, been able to overcome their propensity to indolence, or their utter aversion and abhorrence to that species of labour. They appeared to relish these articles of food, when offered, and would eat them with avidity, if accompanied with a little grease; yet, even the incitement of reward, superadded to the prospect of a constant and wholesome supply of nourishment, failed in producing any inclination for industry. Although, like other tribes in a barbarous state, each individual is solely dependent, for support and defence, on the strength of his own arm, and the resolution of his mind; they are, notwithstanding, so pusillanimous, that at the appearance of an enemy, however small in numbers, they betake themselves to flight, and retire for safety into the woods.

The furs procured in this quarter, are, in general, of a superior quality; and great attention is bestowed by the hunters, in scraping and cleaning the parchments. These posts, which produced to government a rent of no more than four hundred pounds a year, have lately been let on a lease of thirty years, to the North-west Company, a society of merchants at Montreal, for the yearly rent of one thousand and twenty-five pounds.

In ascending the Saint Lawrence, the country on either side affords pleasure and amusement to the traveller, by the exhibition of a profusion of grand objects. Amid the combination of islands, promontories, and hills clothed with forests, some scenes, more strikingly than others, attract the attention. On the north side, after passing Mal-bay, a bold and interesting scene is formed, by large huge masses of rock, interpersed with shrubs, and by the east side of the hills, called *les Eboulements*, which with majestic elevation project into the river. The settlement of Camourasca, with the mountains beyond it, forms the opposite coast.

The island of Coudres, situated at the distance of about a league from the north shore, rises gradually from the water, except in a few places, where its borders, although of no great height, are almost perpendicular, and covered with small trees. It contains one parish, and about thirty families, each of which derives its support from its own lands. The extent of this island, is about seven miles in length, and about three in extreme breadth. Its name arose from the quantity of hazel-trees, which Jacques Cartier, in his voyage to Quebec, found growing in its woods.

The part of the country round St. Paul's bay, as well as Mal-bay, is subject to earthquakes, particularly in the winter

season, when they are sometimes so alarming, as to threaten destruction to the buildings. No serious accident has, however, of late years occurred, although apprehension frequently compels the inhabitants to forsake their dwellings, during the reiteration of the shocks.

The breadth of the Saint Lawrence from Mal-bay to Camourasca on the south shore, is about twenty miles, and a cluster of rocky islands is situated about a league from the coast of that settlement. Between these islands and the shore, the inhabitants place, every spring, a fence, formed of the straight and slender boughs of trees, firmly stuck into the sandy bottom, at about two feet distance from each other. When the tide ascends, the white porpusses, with which the river abounds, enter those snares, and the violence of the current, causing a tremulous motion in the branches, they are afraid to repass the fences; when the tide has retired, they are left upon the dry beach.

These fishes, which are of a snowy whiteness, are to be seen playing, in great numbers, near the surface of the water, from the mouth of the river, as high up as the island of Orleans, and frequently in the basin of Quebec. They often follow, in multitudes, vessels sailing in the river, and many of them are twelve, or even fifteen feet in length. One of the smallest will yield upwards of a barrel of oil. The fisheries of seals and sea-cows, are likewise profitable.

The vicinity of Camourasca presents a scene, wild and romantic, being varied by islands, by level lands, and by rocky acclivities. The sulphureous springs found here, and the immense masses of broken rock, which appear to have been thrown together by some violent and uncommon effort of nature, afford grounds for supposing, that this part of the country has undergone material changes.

From this settlement, in ascending the coast of the great river, the country is fertile, and thickly inhabited, being, in some places, settled to the depth of several concessions. The cultivated lands are level, and watered by a variety of fine streams, among which the Ouelle, the Saint Ann, and the Saint Thomas, are the chief. The latter falls into the Saint Lawrence in a beautiful manner, over a perpendicular rock, whose altitude is twenty-five feet Great quantities of grain are produced in the parishes of the same names as these rivers; and the soil surpasses in fertility, any of the settlements around Quebec. The coasts of the great river afford excellent meadow lands. The churches, and settlements which are placed thickly together, produce an agreeable contrast, with the forests and distant mountains. The face of the country on the north is elevated and bold, being composed of a succession of hills, rising abruptly from the water, and

terminating towards the west, by cape Tourment, whose perpendicular altitude is two thousand feet. Between Saint Paul's bay and that cape, at the basis of one of the mountains, stands the parish of *la Petite Riviere*.

The centre of the river is diversified by clusters of small islands, some of which are settled, and partly cleared of their native woods. They supply good pasturage for cattle, and great quantities of hay. On approaching the island of Orleans, a rich and interesting view displays itself; it is composed by the eastern extremity of that island, cloathed with trees, the Isle *de Madame*, the Cape, and the mountains which recede from it towards the west and north, with the cultivated meadows which spread themselves under its rocky basis. When the atmosphere is varied by clouds, which frequently envelope the summits of those mountains, and which, by suddenly bursting open, present them partially to the eye, the spectator becomes impressed with the sublimity and grandeur of the scene.

Cape Tourment is three hundred and thirty miles distant from the mouth of the river. After passing the island of Coudres, the water assumes a whitish hue, and is brackish to the taste, the mixture of salt continuing to diminish, until the tide reaches the lower extremity of Orleans, where it becomes perfectly fresh.

The latter island, rises in gradation, from its steep banks on the coast, towards its centre, presenting a pleasing and fertile appearance. Beyond it, the mountains of the north coast exalt their towering summits. Its circumference is about forty-eight miles. It was, in 1676, erected into an Earldom, under the title of Saint Laurent, which has long been extinct. Of the two channels formed by this island, that of the south, possessing much greater depth and breadth, is the course through which all vessels of burden are navigated. About the centre of this island is an anchoring ground, called Patrick's hole, protected by lofty banks, and affording shelter, when necessary, for a great number of ships. The channel on the north, is navigable for sloops and schooners only, and appears to be gradually diminishing in depth.

Wild vines are found in the woods of Orleans, which induced Jacques Cartier, on his first landing there, to bestow on it the appellation of the *Isle de Bacchus*. Considerable quantities of grain are here produced; and in several situations, there are orchards affording apples of a good quality. At the lower extremity of the island, the river is sixteen miles in breadth; and at the upper extremity, a basin extending in every direction, about six miles, is formed. At the approach to this basin, a number of objects combine to produce a lively and interesting prospect.

The foaming clouds of the Montmorenci, pouring over a gloomy precipice, suddenly open on the eye. The rocks of Point Levi, and the elevated promontory, on whose sides the city of Quebec is placed, seem to bound the channel of the great river. The north side of the town is terminated by the Saint Charles. The settlement of Beauport, in extent about seven miles, intervenes between the Montmorenci and Quebec, and is situated on a declivity, extending from the hills to the Saint Lawrence, whose banks gradually slope towards the little river of Beauport, from whose western borders the land becomes level. A chain of mountains towards the north intercepts the view.

ACCOUNT OF QUEBEC.

From the period at which Jacques Cartier visited and explored the river Saint Lawrence, until the year 1603, no serious efforts were made by Europeans for the formation of a settlement in Canada. A space of nearly a century was suffered to elapse, without any other advantage having been derived from the discovery of this part of the continent of North America, than that of the precarious profits which accrued to some adventurers, by carrying on with the native inhabitants, who frequented the coasts of the great river, an inconsiderable traffic in peltry. At length, in the æra mentioned above, Samuel de Champlain, a man of enterprize and talent, actuated by liberal sentiments, and by patriotic, more than by interested views, after having surveyed the borders of the river, for the choice of a situation presenting the greatest conveniences for a settlement, gave the preference to an elevated promontory, between the Saint Lawrence and the small river Saint Charles. It is asserted, that some of his attendants, having pronounced at first view of this point of land, the word "Quel bec!" Champlain bestowed that name on his projected town. After erecting some huts for the shelter of his people, he began to clear the environs, from the woods with which they were covered.

The spot which Champlain designed as the foundation of a future city, did no less credit to his judgement than to his taste. Its superior altitude and natural strength, afford the advantage of of its being in time rendered, by the labours of engineers, a respectable and formidable fortress.

Cape Diamond, the summit of the promontory, rises abruptly on the south, to the height of three hundred and fifty perpendicular feet, above the river, advances from the line of the banks on the west, and forms the *Ance de Mer*, a small harbour, occupied for the purpose of ship-building. Some uneven ground subsides into a valley, between the works and the heights of Abraham; on the latter there are natural elevations, which are

higher by a few feet, than any of the grounds included within the fortifications.

In 1690, Quebec was first fortified with eleven stone redoubts, which served as bastions, communicating with each other, by curtains composed of palisades ten feet in height, strengthened in the interior with earth. No other defence was, for many years, provided against the hostile attempts of the Iroquois, and other savage tribes who were inimical to the French settlers. The ruins of five of these redoubts are yet extant. The citadel is now constructed on the highest part of Cape Diamond, composed of a whole bastion, a curtain and half-bastion, from whence it extends along the summit of the bank towards the north-east, this part being adapted with flanks, agreeably to the situation of the ground. There are, towards the south-west a ditch, counter-guard, and covered-way, with glacis. The works have, of late years, been in a great measure built, and raised to a pitch calculated to command the high grounds in the vicinity.

When viewed from a small distance, they exhibit a handsome appearance. A steep and rugged bank, about fifty feet in height, terminates the ditch and glacis on the north, towards which the ground slopes downwards from Cape Diamond, nearly three hundred feet, in a distance of about nine hundred yards. Along the summit of the bank a strong wall of stone, nearly forty feet high, having a half and a whole flat bastion with small flanks, occupies a space of two hundred yards, to palace-gate, at which there is a guard-house. From hence to the new works at Hope-gate, is a distance of about three hundred yards. The rocky eminence increases in steepness and elevation as far as the bishop's palace, near which there is a strong battery of heavy cannon, extending a considerable way along the brow of the precipice, and commanding the basin, and part of the river. Between the edifice now mentioned, and the lower town, a steep passage, partly formed by nature, intervenes, over which there is a barrier, with a gate-way of stone, surmounted by a guard-house, and its communication is otherwise defended by powerful works of stone, under the palace on one side, and on the other stretching upwards towards the government-house, where the bank becomes considerably more elevated. This building, which is dignified with the appellation of *chateau*, or castle of St. Louis, is placed on the brink of a precipice, inaccessible, and whose altitude exceeds two hundred feet. The building is supported by counterforts, rising to half its height, and sustaining a gallery. The apartments are occupied as offices for the civil and military branches, acting immediately under the orders of the governor general of British America, who likewise commands the troops, and whose residence is in a building of more modern construction, forming the opposite

side of a square. The apartments are spacious and plain, but the structure has nothing external to recommend it. Upon the brink of the precipitous rock, a stone wall is extended from the old chateau, for a distance of about three hundred yards to the westward, which forms a line of defence, and serves as a boundary to the garden, within which are two small batteries, one rising above the other.

Cape Diamond, nearly 200 feet higher than the ground on which the upper town is situated, presents itself to the westward. From the garrison there are five gates, or outlets to the neighbouring country, the highest, Port Saint Louis, opens to the westward, and towards the heights of Abraham; Port Saint John, towards Saint Foix, through which is the road to Montreal; Palace and Hope-gate open towards the river Saint Charles and the north, and Prescott-gate affords a communication to the lower town on the south-east.

In most of the public buildings, no great degree of taste or elegance can be discovered although much labour and expence must have been bestowed on their construction. The architects seem principally to have had in view, strength and durability, and not to have paid much regard to those rules of their art, which combine symmetry with utility. The cathedral church of the catholics, is a long elevated, and plain building of stone, with the spire on one side of its front; the internal appearance is neat and spacious, and it is capable of containing about three thousand persons. A good organ has here lately been introduced. The Jesuits' college, originally founded at Quebec in 1635, has been, since that period rebuilt, and is a large stone edifice of three stories high, of nearly a square figure, containing an area in its centre. The garden is of some extent, and has at one end, a grove of trees, part of which is a remain of the original woods with which the promontory was once covered.

The society of Jesuits which became established in Canada, formerly composed a numerous body, and their college was considered as the first institution, on the continent of North America, for the instruction of young men. The advantages derived from it, were not limited to the better classes of Canadians, but were extended to all whose inclination it was to participate them, and many students came thither, from the West Indies. From the period of the expulsion of the Jesuits from the states of Europe, and the consequent abolition of their order on that continent, this establishment although protected by the British government, began rapidly to decline. The last member of that fraternity died a few years ago, and the buildings, as well as the lands which form an extensive domain, devolved to the crown.

The landed property was designed by the sovereign as a recom-

pence for the services of the late Lord Amherst, who commanded the troops in North America, at the time of the conquest of Canada, and who completed the reduction of that province, under the British government. The claim of these estates has been relinquished by his successor, for a pension. The revenue arising from them, has been appropriated by the legislature of Lower Canada, for the purpose of establishing in the different parishes, schools for the education of children. The Jesuits' college is now converted into a commodious barrack for the troops.

The seminary, a building of some extent, forming three sides of a square open towards the north-west, contains a variety of apartments, suited for the accommodation of a certain number of ecclesiastics, and of young students, who are of the Roman Catholic religion. The institution owes its foundation to M. de Petré, who, in 1663, obtained from the King of France, letters patent for that purpose. Tythes were enjoined to be paid by the inhabitants, to the directors of the seminary, for its support, and a thirteenth in addition to what was already the right of the church, was levied. This regulation being found too oppressive, was altered to a twenty-sixth part of the produce, to be paid in grain, from which tax newly cleared lands were exempted, for a space of five years.

The members of the seminary are composed of a superior, three directors, and six or seven masters, who are appointed to instruct young men in the different branches of education, professed by each. Since the decline and extinction of the order of Jesuits, the seminary, which was at first exclusively designed for the education of priests, and, excepting the college Montreal, is the only public establishment of the kind in the province, is now open to all young men of the catholic faith, although they may not be destined for the sacerdotal function. The north-east aspect of this building is agreeable in summer, having under it a spacious garden, which extends to near the precipice on the east, and overlooks the lower town.

The monastery, with the church and garden of the Recollets, which occupied the western side of the spot called *Place d' Armes*, are now rased to the foundation, the building having been destroyed by fire in 1796, and the order to which they were appropriated, having since that period, become extinct. Two new edifices have lately been erected, upon that scite; the one a protestant metropolitan church, the other a house for courts of law. They are both constructed with the best materials, which this part of the country affords, and executed in a neat and handsome stile. The church, although not much ornamented may be pronounced elegant, the rules of architecture have been adhered to in its structure. Considered as ornaments to the city of Quebec,

it is to be regretted, that separate situations have not been allotted for them, and that in a country where public buildings capable of attracting notice are rarely to be met with, two edifices of such consequence should have been placed so near to each other.

The Hotel Dieu, with its gardens, occupies a large extent of ground. It was founded in 1638, by the Duchess d' Aiguillon, who sent from the hospital at Dieppe three nuns, for the purpose of commencing this charitable and useful institution; it consists of a superior and twenty-seven sisters, whose principal occupation is to assist, and to administer medicines and food to invalids of both sexes, who may be sent to the hospital, and who are lodged in wards where much regard is paid to cleanliness.

The convent of the Ursulines was instituted in 1639, by Madame de la Peltre, a young widow of condition, in France. It is possessed by a superior, and thirty-six nuns, who are chiefly engaged in the instruction of young women. The building is spacious, and has extensive gardens annexed to it. The bishop's palace already mentioned, situated near the communication with the lower town, has been for several years, occupied for public offices, and for a library. The chapel has been converted into a room, for the meeting of the provincial assembly of representatives.

Another edifice on the north side of the town, extending in length from palace-gate to the ramparts on the west, upwards of 500 feet in length, contains a number of vaulted apartments, and is occupied for the office of ordnance, for barracks for the royal artillery, for an armoury, store-houses and work-shops, and for a public goal, which forms the east end of the building.

The ruins of a large house which was formerly that of the intendant, remain on a flat ground on the banks of the river Saint Charles, and in the suburbs of Saint Roc. This was once called a palace, because the council of the French government in North America there assembled. The apartments, which were numerous and spacious, were furnished with magnificence and splendour. On one side of the court, were placed the king's storehouses, which, together with the palace, were consumed by fire, occasioned by a shell thrown from the garrison in 1775, when the town was blockaded by the Americans, with a view to dislodge some of the hostile troops, who had taken shelter in these buildings.

The general hospital, on the banks of the Saint Charles, about a mile westward from the garrison, and surrounded by meadow lands, was founded in 1693, by M. de Saint Vallier, Bishop of Quebec, with the benevolent design of affording support and relief to the poor, the infirm, the sick, and the wounded; nor have the purposes of its original founder at any time been defeated,

with regard to the most scrupulous exactitude in their fulfilment. The extent of the building, whose form is that of a parallelogram, is considerable, and it contains a variety of apartments, neat and commodious. A superior and thirty-seven sisters compose the community. Their time which remains from the occupations of the duties of religion, and the offices of humanity, is employed in gilding ornaments for the decoration of churches, and in several other works, at which they are expert.

The streets of Quebec are, in consequence of its situation, irregular and uneven, many of them are narrow, and but very few are paved. The houses are built of stone, are of unequal heights, and covered, in general, with roofs of boards; the roughness of the materials of which they are constructed, gives them a rugged aspect, and the accommodations are fitted up in a stile equally plain and void of taste. The frequent accidents which have happened, and the extensive damage which the town has repeatedly sustained from conflagrations have suggested the expediency of covering the public buildings, and many of the dwelling-houses with tin, or painted sheet-iron.

The lower town, which is the principal place of commerce, occupies the ground at the basis of the promontory, which has been gradually gained from the cliffs on one side, by mining, and from the river on the other, by the construction of wharfs. The channel is here about a mile in breadth, to Point Levi, on the opposite shore, and its greatest depth at high water, is thirty fathoms, the anchorage being every where safe and good. Since the year 1793, ship-building has been carried on with considerable success, and vessels of every description and dimension, from fifty to a thousand tons burthen, have been constructed. The materials are found in abundance in the country, but the anchors, sails, and cordage, are generally imported. As the tide rises eighteen feet, and at spring tides twenty-four feet, there is no difficulty in finding situations for dock-yards.

The rock of which the promontory of Quebec is composed, consists of a species of black lime slate, varying in thickness; which, although apparently compact, may, by the stroke of a hammer, be shivered into thin pieces, and, by exposure to the influence of the weather, it moulders into soil. A considerable number of the houses of the town, is built of this stone, and there is a mode of placing it, by which, in masonry, its durability may be considerably prolonged. The inhabitants, comprehended in Quebec, and in the suburbs of Saint John, and Saint Roc, may be computed at about 15000.

When viewed from Point Levi, on the opposite coast of the river, an interesting variety of objects is exhibited, by massy ocks, interspersed with shrubbery, by Cape Diamond, boldly

rising from the water, by the houses along its base, contrasted with overhanging cliffs, by a confused cluster of buildings overtopping each other up the side of the hill, and by the fortifications which crown the summit. The Saint Lawrence flowing on one side, and the Saint Charles on the other, give to this spot, the appearance of an island. The bridge across the latter is likewise visible from hence, and remote mountains terminate the prospect. The scene, in winter, becomes amusing to strangers, particularly, if the ice on the great river, between Quebec, and the opposite coast of Point Levi, be closely fixed, a circumstance which depends more upon accident, than on the severity of cold, and does not frequently occur. When the ice becomes consolidated and stationary, it is called, by the Canadians, the *pont*, which affords, not only to the country people inhabiting the neighbouring parishes on the south side, a facility of conveying their produce to market, and thereby of rendering provisions and provender more abundant in the town, but likewise presents to the citizens, a large field for gratification and exercise, who then are constantly driving their horses and carriages, upon the solid surface of the stream.

From the heights to the westward of the garrison, an extensive and beautiful view is developed, in summer, to the eye of the spectator .It is composed of the works, part of the loftier buildings of the town, the basin, point Levi, the island of Orleans, the south and north channels, the parishes of Beauport, Ange Gardien, and Chateau Richer, with the mountains on the north-east, stretching to Cape Tourment.

IVER MONTMORENCI.

The river Montmorenci, which empties itself into the Saint Lawrence, at the distance of eight miles to the north-east of Quebec, was called after a marechal of that name, who was viceroy of New France. Passing through a course from the north-east, of considerable length, the first settlement through which it flows, is called La Motte, situated on the northern extremity of a sloping ground, which gradually descends from the mountains, to the coast of the great river. At La Motte, the waters diffuse themselves into shallow currents, interrupted by rocks, which break them into foam, accompanied by murmuring sounds, tending to enliven the solitude and solemn stillness, which prevail throughout the surrounding forests, and on the desolate hills. The channel of the river, farther down, is bounded by precipitous rocks, it becomes extremely contracted, and the rapidity of its current is proportionably augmented. At a place called the *natural steps*, there are cascades of the height of ten, or twelve feet. These steps have been gradually formed, by the accession

of waters which the river receives in its progress, at the breaking up of winter, and by the melting of snows. From the middle of April, to the end of May, its waters roll along with an encreasing height and rapidity. The banks from the natural steps, downwards to the Saint Lawrence, are composed of a lime slate, placed in horizontal strata, from the depth of five to twenty-four inches each, connected by fibrous gypsum of a whitish colour. The waters, at the season already mentioned, powerfully impelled in their course, insinuate themselves between the strata, dissolve the gypsum and tear the horizontal rock, which gives way in fragments of various sizes, yielding to the rushing violence of the sweeping torrent. The regularity displayed in the formation of some of these steps, is well deserving of observation.

On the east side, the bank is almost perpendicular, is nearly fifty feet in altitude, and is covered at the summit, with trees. The south-west bank rises beyond the steps; in looking downwards it appears also wooded, and terminates in a precipice. The bank on the opposite side, assumes a regularity of shape, so singular as to resemble the ruins of a lofty wall. Somewhat below, the banks on each side, are cloathed with trees, which, together with the effect produced by the foaming currents, and the scattered masses of stone, compose a scene, wild and picturesque. From hence, taking a south direction, the stream is augmented in velocity, and forms a cascade interrupted by huge rocks; and at a distance farther down, of 500 yards, a similar effect is produced. After thus exhibiting a grateful variety throughout its course, the river is precipitated in an almost perpendicular direction, over a rock of the height of 246 feet, falling where it touches the rock, in white clouds of rolling foam, and underneath, where it is propelled with uninterrupted gravitation, in numerous flakes, like wool or cotton, which are gradually protracted in their descent, until they are received into the boiling, profound abyss, below.

Viewed from the summit of the cliff, from whence they are thrown, the waters, with every concomitant circumstance, produce an effect awfully grand, and wonderfully sublime. The prodigious depth of their descent, the brightness and volubility of their course, the swiftness of their movement through the air, and the loud and hollow noise emitted from the basin, swelling with agitation from the weight of the dashing waters, forcibly combine to attract the attention, and to impress with sentiments of grandeur and elevation, the mind of the spectator. The clouds arising, and assuming the prismatic colours, contribute to enliven the scene. They fly off from the fall in the form of a revolving sphere, emitting with velocity, pointed flakes of spray, which spread in receding, until intercepted by neighbouring banks, or dissolved in the atmosphere.

The breadth of the fall is 100 feet. The basin is bounded by steep cliffs, composed of grey lime slate, lying in inclined strata, which on the east and west sides, are subdivided into innumerable thin shivers, forming with the horizon, an angle of forty-five degrees, and containing between them, fibrous gypsum and *pierre à calumet*. Mouldering incessantly, by exposure to the air, and action of the weather; no surface for vegetation remains upon these substances.

An advantageous view of the fall may be obtained from the beach, when the tide of the great river is low. In this are included, the east bank of the river, the point of Ange Gardien, and Cape Tourment. The south-west point of the basin, becomes the nearest object, beyond which appears the cataract of resplendent beauty foaming down the gloomy precipice, whose summits are crowned with woods. Its reflection from the bed beneath, forms a contrast to the shade thrown by the neighbouring cliffs. The diffusion of the stream, to a breadth of 500 yards, with the various small cascades produced by the inequalities in its rocky bed, on its way to the Saint Lawrence, display a singular and pleasing combination. It runs for about 400 yards, through a wide and steep gulph, which it is generally supposed, that its waters have excavated. One circumstance seems, however, to controvert this conjecture. The bed beneath, over which the river flows, is invariably composed of a solid stratum of rock, over several parts of which, there are fords for the passage of carriages. The general depth of water, does not here exceed eight inches, but partial channels have been worn by the stream, few of which are above three or four feet in depth. There appears no vestige of any deep excavation, except in the vicinity of the fall, which, if it had ever receded from the Saint Lawrence, must have formed in the solid bed of rock, basins of considerable depth. The ford being, in most places, rugged and unequal, its passage is unpleasant, and not altogether safe.

The next subject which engages the attention of our author, is Jeune Lorette, a village nine miles to the north-west of Quebec, upon a track of land which rises towards the mountains. It commands by its elevated position, an extensive view of the river Saint Lawrence, of Quebec, of the intermediate country, of the southern coast, and of the mountains which separate Canada from the United States. The village, which contains upwards of 200 inhabitants, consists of about fifty houses, constructed of wood and stone, which have a decent appearance.

The chapel is small, but neat, and the parish extending to a considerable way around, the Canadians, who form the greatest number of parishioners, have lately procured a church to be erected for their accommodation, about a quarter of a mile from the

village. The Indians attend, with scrupulous observance, to the performance of their devotions. The women are placed in the centre of the chapel, and the men arrange themselves on each side and on the rear. The former have in general good voices, and both sexes seem to evince a considerable degree of fervency, in the exercise of their religious duties. They live together in a state of almost uninterrupted harmony and tranquillity; the missionary has a great influence over them, and they have exchanged, in some degree, the manners of savage life, for those of the Canadians, in whose vicinity they reside.

The quantity of land they occupy in cultivation, is about 200 acres, which they plant with Indian corn, or maize. A number of the men pursue the chase, during the winter season. The French language is spoken by them with considerable ease, and the men in general, notwithstanding their partial civilization, maintain that independence which arises from the paucity and and limitation of their wants, and which constitutes a principal feature in the savage character.

This nation originally frequented the vicinity of lake Huron, near a thousand miles from Quebec. It was once the most formidable and fierce, of any tribe that inhabited those quarters, dreaded even by the Iroquois; who, however found means to subjugate, and almost to extirpate it, by pretending to enter into an alliance; the Hurons, too blindly relying on the protestations of the Iroquois, the latter seized an opportunity, to surprise and slaughter them. The village now described, was composed of a part of the Hurons who escaped from the destruction of their tribe, and is occupied by the descendants of that people.

We assembled together in the evening a number of males and females of the village, who repeatedly performed their several dances, descriptive of their manner of going to war, of watching to ensnare the enemy, and of returning with the captives they were supposed to have surprised. The instrument chiefly in use in the dances, is a calibash filled with small pebbles, called *chichicoué*, which is shaken by the hand in order to mark the cadence, for the voices and the movements. They are strangers to melody in their songs, being totally unacquainted with music. The syllables which they enounce, are *yo, he, waw*. These are invariably repeated, the beholders beating time with their hands and feet. The dancers move their limbs but a little way from the ground, which they beat with violence. Their dancing, and their music, are uniformly rude and disgusting, and the only circumstance which can recompense a civilized spectator, for the penance sustained by his ear, amid this boisterous roar, and clash of discordant sounds, is, that to each dance is annexed the representation of some action, peculiar to the habits of savage life, and,

that by seeing their dances performed, some idea may be acquired, of the mode of conducting their unimproved system of warfare.

The river Saint Charles, called by the natives, *Carbir Coubat*, on account of the curvatures of its channel, after winding for a few miles to the south-west of the lake of that name, passes the Indian village, and rolls over a steep and irregular rock, of the altitude of thirty feet, forming a beautiful and romantic cataract. In passing a mill, which is under the fall, the current becomes extremely narrow, and for a space of three miles, is bounded by woody banks, on which, there are frequent openings cut through the trees, disclosing the rushing waters. The rapidity of the stream opposed by rocks, produces quantities of white foam upon its gloomy surface, accompanied by murmuring sounds. The waterfall, with the smaller cascades above it, the mill, the bridge, and the distant hills, present an agreeable landscape.

About three leagues to the eastward of Lorette, the village of Charlebourg is situated; this parish is populous and well cultivated, being one of the oldest settlements on that side of the river Saint Charles. The church stands on rising ground about a league to the north of Quebec, and the village, from the altitude of its position, commands a rich and extensive prospect. The lands are six miles in depth, and form part of the *seigneurie* of the Jesuits.

The river *Chaudiere* empties itself into the Saint Lawrence, about eight miles to the south-west of Quebec. Its mouth is confined by woody banks, and contains depth of water to admit a ship of considerable size. This stream flows from Lake Megantic, through a course, north, and north-west, for a distance of one hundred and twenty miles.

The falls are about four miles from its mouth, and the road thither being, for the greatest part through woods, it is necessary, even for those that have already visited them, to take as a guide, one of the neighbouring inhabitants. The summit of the falls is about one hundred and twenty yards in breadth, and, in the spring of the year, the waters flow abundantly, swoln by the increase which they receive, from the dissolving snows of the country through which they run, and from tributary streams, which, at this season, are likewise augmented by the same causes.

The month of May appears to be the most advantageous period, at which to contemplate this interesting scene, the approach to which ought first to be made from the top of the banks, as, in emerging from the woods, it conducts at once to the summit of the cataract, where the objects which instanta-

neously become developed to the eye, strike the mind with surprise, and produce a wonderful and powerful impression.

The waters descend from a height of one hundred and twenty feet, and being separated by rocks, form three distinct cataracts, the largest of which is on the western side, and they unite, in the basin beneath, their broken and agitated waves. The form of the rock forces a part of the waters, into an oblique direction, and advances them beyond the line of the precipice. The cavities worn in the rocks, produce a pleasing variety, and cause the descending waters to revolve with foaming fury, to whose whiteness the gloomy cliffs, present a strong opposition of colour. The vapour from each division of the falls, quickly mounting through the air, bestows an enlivening beauty on the landscape.

The wild diversity displayed by the banks of the stream, and the foliage of the overhanging woods, the brilliancy of colours richly contrasted, the rapidity of motion, the effulgent brightness of the cataracts, the deep and solemn sound which they emit, and the various cascades further down the river, unite in rendering this, such a pleasing exhibition of natural objects, as few scenes can surpass.

On descending the side of the river, the landscape becomes considerably altered, and the falls appear to great advantage. Masses of rock, and elevated points of land covered with trees, together with the smaller cascades on the stream, present a rich assemblage, terminated by the falls. The scenery in proceeding down the river, is rugged and wild.

The gratification derived, in the beginning of summer, from the contemplation of such scenes as that which has now been described, is considerably damped by a reflection, on the short duration of the period allotted for beholding them with comfort. Myriads of winged insects, hostile to the repose of man, will shortly infest the borders of this river; when the warm weather, which consists not of one half the year, is expired, the ungenial winter will resume its domination, and the falls themselves, except an inconsiderable part of them, must, notwithstanding the rapidity of their course, become a solid body.

Viewed in the winter season, the falls exhibit an appearance more curious than pleasing, being, for the greatest part congealed, and the general form of the congelated masses, is that of a concretion of icicles, which resembles a cluster of pillars in gothic architecture, and may not improperly be compared to the pipes of an organ. The spray becomes likewise consolidated into three masses, or sections of a cone, externally convex, but concave towards the falls. The west side, being usually

the only place in which the waters flow, the aspect is infinitely inferior to that displayed in summer, and the sound emitted, is comparatively faint. The surrounding objects, covered alike with snow, present one uniform glare. The rocks, and the bed of the river, disguised by unshapely white masses, produce a reflection, which gives, even to the waters of the cataract, an apparent tinge of obscurity.

ISLAND OF ORLEANS.

The island of Orleans, rising from the river Saint Lawrence, in some parts with steep and wooded banks, in others with more gentle ascent, presents to the eye an agreeable object. Its nearest point, is six miles to the north-east of Quebec. A favourable view of the neighbouring country is afforded from its higher grounds, particularly of the scenery on the north, which is diversified, bold, and extensive. The fall of Montmorenci discloses itself from hence, amidst a rich and enchanting combination of features. The central part of this island is clothed with trees, and the ground sloping from it on either side, few eminences occur, to interrupt the view. The parishes of Ange Gardien and Chateau Richer, are there seen to great advantage. From hence the river *la Puce*, on the opposite coast, at the distance of five miles, by an engaging display of natural attractions, invites the attention of the traveller; it rolls its current, broken into a refulgent whiteness equalling that of snow, from the summit of a lofty hill, and afterwards conceals itself midway, behind an intervening eminence of inferior altitude, cloathed with trees The motion of its waters is perceptible, and the reflection of light arising from the fall, glistening with the rays of the sun, produces a powerful contrast with the deep verdure of the forests by which it is environed.

At the lower extremity of the island, there are situations no less bold than picturesque; the north shore is interspersed with immense masses of detached limestone-rock; the south side is cloathed with trees to the borders of the great river; from either, are seen cape Tourment, the isles and the mountains named Les Eboulements, which pierce the clouds with their pointed summits. The soil of the island is, in general fertile, affording more produce than is necessary for the consumption of its inhabitants. Not many years ago, it was, for two successive seasons, visited by a scourge, which swept away, in its progress, the whole productions of the land. The grasshoppers, which are in a great degree multiplied by the too long continuance of dry weather, appeared in such redundancy of swarms, as to consume every vegetable substance, and almost totally to cover the surface of the ground: when by their destructive ravages, the island became so denuded

of verdure, as no longer to afford them the means of sustenance, they assembled on the water in clusters, resembling small rafts, and floated with the tide and wind, along the basin of the St. Lawrence, to Quebec, where they filled the decks and cordage of the vessels at anchor, and afterwards betook themselves, through the town to the ramparts, which, having stripped of grass, they proceed in separate columns, through the country to the southward. A considerable part of their number probably perished in the voyage from the island, and the remainder, having a greater extent of territory over which to spread, their depredations became less perceptible.

Orleans contains five parishes, two of which, Saint Piere and Saint Famille, are on the north side; and three on the south, Saint François, Saint John, and Saint Lawrent. The number of its inhabitants amounts to about two thousand.

The channels which separate the island from the continent, are each about a league in breadth. The banks on its western side, consist, for a considerable way down the coast, of black lime-slate, covered with soil, generated from the decomposition of that substance, and the annual decay of vegetable productions. The rocks of those on the eastern extremity, are mixed with grey quartz, reddish limestone, and grey limestone, combined with pale grains of sand.

From the parish of Ange Gardien to the base of Cape Tourment, throughout an extent of 18 miles, the coast is composed of fertile meadow land, varying in breadth, bounded on the north by steep and lofty banks, from whence the ground rises in gentle acclivities to the bases of the hills. By the reflux of the tide, a swamp of a mile in width, is here left uncovered; on some parts of the coast of Orleans, there are similar muddy grounds. In spring and autumn, these situations are frequented by great numbers of snipes, plover and wild ducks.

In the midst of meadows, near Cape Tourment, a narrow hill, about a mile in length, and flat on its summit, rises to the height of about a hundred feet. A large dwelling-house, with chapel and other buildings, are placed towards the eastern extremity; thither, the ecclesiastics of the seminary of Quebec, to whom lands belong, retire in autumn.

NORTH COAST OF THE SAINT LAWRENCE.

Between the cape and the adjoining mountains a lake is formed, the height of whose situation is several hundred feet above the Saint Lawrence. The parish of Saint Joachim is populous, and the soil is rich, being equally adapted to pasturage, and to cultivation. It is separated from the parish of Saint Anne by a

stream of considerable magnitude; called *la Grande Riviere*, or the Saint Anne.

In travelling to the interior settlements after having ascended two steep and lofty banks, or elevations from one plain to another, the road is continued for upwards of four miles through a forest composed of poplar, birch, beech, fir, and ash trees, in which there are some openings, disclosing an elevated mountain.

The settlement of Saint Feriole extends itself for near nine miles over a country gradually ascending, whose superior altitude contributes to encrease the cold of the climate, and to render the land less productive. Necessity has induced an hundred families to fix their abode in this remote situation, where, if their industry be less copiously rewarded, and if the cold which predominates longer in winter, and commences much earlier in autumn than in the lower parts, sometimes check the vegetation of grain, and impede its advancement to maturity, there is notwithstanding no appearance of indigence among the inhabitants.

On turning his eyes towards the country he has already passed, the traveller is gratified by a luxuriant and diversified assemblage of objects, which, like a chart, seems to expand itself beneath. After descending a hill cloathed with trees, and of about seven hundred feet in perpendicular elevation, we gained the side of the river which flows through this settlement, and of which we have already spoken. There are no less than seven falls of this river, which are near to each other, and are formed in its current from the summit, to the basis of a steep and lofty mountain, after having held its course for a distance of several miles, along a ridge of high lands. The stream does not exceed forty yards in width, and the principal and lower fall, which is on the north-east, is one hundred and thirty feet high. It has formerly flowed through another channel, in which it has been obstructed by fallen rocks, and also partly by a dam or dyke, which the industry and sagacity of the beaver, teach it to form, frequently across the channels of rivers. The ancient bed is plainly discoverable, by the deep ravines, worn, at different stages, on the side of the mountain, and by a valley near the lower fall.

Although, in almost the whole of the cataracts in Lower Canada a certain similarity of effect is discoverable, the precipices over which they pour their waters being nearly perpendicular; and although these sublime objects so frequently occur, that the impression which novelty produces on the mind, is thereby in a great degree weakened, yet each is distinguishable by peculiar features. The accumulated waters in the spring of the year, by abrading, and sweeping down portions of the solid rock, incessantly produce alterations, and thus enlarge the channel or render it more deep.

The landscape which environs this fall, is grand and romantic. The banks are rugged, steep, and wild, being covered with a variety of trees. Below, large and irregular masses of limestone rock, are piled upon each other. Not one half of the mountain can be seen by the spectator, when stationed by the side of the river. The whole of the waters of the fall, are not immediately received into the basin beneath, but a hollow rock, about fifteen feet high, receives a part, which glides from thence, in the form of a section of a sphere. The river, throughout the remainder of its course, is solitary, wild, and broken, and presents other scenes worthy of observation.

The parishes of Saint Anne and Chateau Richer, are situated under a bank varying in height, extending from Saint Joachim to Ange Gardien, and from thence to the fall of Montmorenci. At the summit of this bank, the land rises by degrees, until it gains the mountains, and is in a state of cultivation. A stream called Dog river, divides Saint Anne from Chateau Richer, and in the latter parish the small river La Puce joins the Saint Lawrence. The former, would scarcely deserve to be mentioned, if it were not for the curious and pleasing objects, which disclose themselves in ascending its course. The lower fall is 112 feet in height, and its banks, formed by elevated acclivities, wooded to their summits, spread around a solemn gloom, which the whiteness, the movements, and the noise of the descending waters, contribute to render interesting and attractive. Besides the last, two other falls are formed by the higher stages of the mountain, where the river, confined in narrower compass, glides over less steep declivities. At the distance of two miles, in ascending the channel, another cataract appears pouring over masses of limestone rock, and assuming different directions in its descent. The environs of this river display, in miniature, a succession of romantic views. The banks near its mouth, are almost perpendicular, and partly denuded of vegetation, being composed of a dark lime slate like substance, which is in a state of continual decay.

In vain would the labours of art endeavour to produce in the gardens of palaces, beauties, which the hand of nature scatters in the midst of unfrequented wilds. The river from about one-fourth of the height of the mountain, discloses itself to the contemplation of the spectator, and delights his eye with varied masses of shining foam, which suddenly issue from a deep ravine hollowed out by the waters, glide down the almost perpendicular rock, and form a splendid curtain, which loses itself amid the foilage of surrounding woods. Such is the scene which the fall of La Puce exhibits, when viewed from the summit of a bank on the eastern side of the river.

The settlement of Chateau Richer, derives its name from the ruins of an edifice situated on a small rocky point, on the borders of the Saint Lawrence. It was a Franciscan monastery, when the army under General Wolfe encamped on the eastern bank of Montmorenci. As the monks used their influence among the inhabitants in their vicinity, to impede a supply of provisions for the English army, it was deemed necessary to send thither a detachment to make them prisoners. They had so fortified themselves within their mansion, that field pieces were required to compel them to a surrender. The house was destroyed by fire, and nothing now remains, except a part of the walls, and the ruins of an adjoining tower, which was formerly a wind-mill. By an inscription above the door, it appears to have been built one hundred and twelve years ago. The parish church is placed on a bank, immediately behind the chateau, and has two spires. The ruins already described, the great river, the island of Orleans, the point of Ange Gardien, and Cape Diamond in the distance, compose an agreeable scene.

Toward the east, a yet happier combination of objects presents itself. On the left, are the ruins of the monastery, the church, banks clothed with foliage, and the lower grounds studded with white cottages; over which Cape Tourment, and the chain of mountains whose termination it forms, tower with exalted majesty.

The rocks which in part compose the mountains, consist of a quartz, of the colour of amber, mixed with a black, small-grained glimmer, black horn stone, and a few minute grains of brown spar. The stone is generally compact, and resists the operation of fire. Some of these rocks are a mixture of white quartz and black glimmer, with grains of brown spar.

Lake Saint Charles is supplied by the river of the same name, and diffuses itself over an extent of flat lands, bounded by mountains, about fourteen miles to the northward of Quebec. In going thither, the road passes over a mountain, from whence is opened, an extensive view of the great river and its banks.

On arriving at the vicinity of the lake, the spectator is delighted by the beauty and picturesque wildness of its banks It is, around small collections of water like this, that nature is displayed to the highest advantage. The extent of the lake is about five miles, and it is almost divided into two by a neck of land, which forms a narrow passage, nearly at the center. Trees grow immediately on the borders of the water, which is indented by several points advancing into it, and forming little bays. The lofty hills which suddenly rise towards the north, in shapes, singular and diversified, are overlooked by mountains which exalt beyond them, their more distant summits. The effect produced

by clouds, is here solemn and sublime, particularly during thunder storms, when they float in rugged masses, around the tops of the hills, whose caverns, and defiles, re-echo to the trembling forests, the hoarse and awful roar.

About three mlies from the lake, in a valley amid precipitous mountains, a settlement was begun a few years ago. Its situation is highly romantic, being watered by several streams, and likewise by the Saint Charles, whose banks, throughout its winding course, to the lake, are adorned with a variety of scenery.

BANKS OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.

In ascending the Saint Lawrence from Quebec to Montreal, the country on either side that river, becomes less diversified, but more rich in soil, and more improved in cultivation, as the traveller advances. The banks, which are abrupt and precipitous, open into several little bays, intermixed with rocks, woods, and settlements. On the north side, at the distance of two miles from the town, is Wolfe's Cove, the place at which the celebrated General of that name disembarked his army, previous to the battle on the heights of Abraham. On the summit of the western bank of this little bay, stands a handsome house, built by General Powell, whose situation, together with the shady walks by which it is surrounded, renders it a pleasing retreat.

From hence to Cape Rouge, the scenery, on account of its beauty and variety, attracts the attention of the passenger. At Sillery, a league from Quebec, on the north shore, are the ruins of an establishment, which was begun in 1637; intended as a religious institution for the conversion and instruction of natives of the country: it was at one time inhabited by twelve French families. The buildings are placed upon level ground, sheltered by steep banks, and close by the borders of the river. They now consist only of two old stone-houses, fallen to decay, and of the remains of a small chapel. In this vicinity, the Algonquins once had a village; several of their tumuli, or burying-places, are still discoverable in the woods, and hieroglyphics cut on the trees, remain, in some situations, yet uneffaced.

Cape Rouge is a lofty bank, suddenly declining to a valley, through which a small river, the discharge of a lake, situated among the mountains on the north, runs into the Saint Lawrence. A slate-stone, of a reddish colour, easily mouldering into thin shivers, is found at the surface, on the summit of the bank. A part of the borders of the river Chaudiere, on the opposite coast, consists of the same substance.

The distance from Quebec to this cape, is eight miles; and, towards the north, a bank parallel to that on the great river, but

of inferior elevation, extends throughout that space, and joins the promontory The mean interval between these acclivities, is about a mile and a half. The level, and in some situations, swampy lands, on the north of this eminence, which in many places abound in stones, apparently formed in the bed of a river, afford probable grounds for conjecture, that a portion of the waters of the Saint Lawrence, formerly flowed between the heights of Saint Augustin and Cape Rouge, directing their course along the valley, insulating the parishes of Quebec and Saint Foix, and re-uniting at the place where the Saint Charles empties itself into the basin.

The low space between the high grounds now mentioned, is about half a mile in breadth, and, by a disclosure of the distant mountains, presents to the eye an agreeable variety. On the opposite coast, at the mouth of the small river Saint Nicholas, a charming combination of picturesque objects is afforded. A part of the bank here rises to the height of about 500 feet, and is clothed with trees. The little river rolls with foaming swiftness into the Saint Lawrence, and turns, with a portion of its waters, corn mills of considerable extent. Two beautiful waterfalls, at no great distance from each other, are to be seen upon this river.

At point Levi, and likewise at the Etchemin, on the south side of the great river, there are corn mills upon an enlarged scale, which belong to the same proprietor, as those of Saint Nicholas.

Through a contracted valley formed by acclivities steep and abrupt, the Jacques Cartier sweeps with impetuosity, over a rocky and interrupted bed, its broken and sonorous current. The distance thither from Quebec, is thirty miles. The navigator who first explored the Saint Lawrence, as far as Montreal, here wintered in 1536, and from this occurrence, his name has been given to the stream. The breadth of its mouth is about 300 yards, and contiguous to it, there are extensive corn mills, worked by water conveyed from a considerable distance, along an aqueduct, under which the road to the ferry passes. The ferrymen traverse the boats from one side to the other, by a strong rope fixed to posts, on account of the rapidity of the waters. On the summit of the hill, at the western side of the ferry, are the remains of an earthen redoubt, which was constructed by the French in 1760. Here, as well as higher up the course of the river, an uncommon wildness is displayed, and the stream is frequently broken into cascades, particularly in the vicinity of the new bridge, where its channel is confined by rug-rocks, some of which are excavated in a singular manner,

by the incessant operation of the furious torrent. During the summer months, salmon are here caught in abundance.

The church of Cape Santé, with the opposite coast, which assumes a singular shape, together with the point of Dechambault, and the vast sheet of water intervening, exhibit a pleasing combination of distant objects At the latter situation, the principal bed of the Saint Lawrence is confined to a narrow, winding, and intricate course, which, at the reflux of the tide, has a considerable descent. At high water, much caution is required, in conducting through it, a vessel of burthen, as the channel on either side is shallow, and abounds with concealed rocks.

TOWN OF THREE RIVERS.

The town of Three Rivers is situated upon a point of land, near the confluence with the Saint Lawrence, of the stream from which it derives its name. It extends about three quarters of a mile, along the north bank of the former. The surrounding country is flat, and its soil is composed of sand, mixed with black mould. In the mouth of the stream, there are two islands, which divide it into three branches. On ascending its course, the borders become wild and picturesque. The town was indebted for its original establishment to the profits arising from the commerce for peltry, which in the infancy of the colony, was carried on by the natives, through the course of this river, which flows from the north-east, for a distance of three hundred miles. Thither, various tribes of these savages, descended from the vicinity of Hudson's bay, and the country intervening between that and the Saint Lawrence.

Attracted by the advantages which the agreeable situation of the place, and the rendezvous for traffic, presented, several French families here established themselves. The proximity of the Iroquois, a nation which cherished an irreconcileable hostility to the French, suggested the necessity of constructing a fort, and the district of Three Rivers became, at length, a separate government. After a lapse of some years, the natives who traded to this place, harassed and exposed to continual danger, from the frequent irruptions of that warlike nation, discontinued their accustomed visits.

The town contains a convent of Ursulines, to which is adjoined a parochial church, and an hospital. It was founded in 1677 by M. de Saint Vallier, bishop of Quebec, for the education of young women, and as an asylum for the poor and sick. A superior and eighteen nuns now possess it, and discharge the functions of this humane institution. A monastery of Recollects

formed also, one of the religious edifices of this place, but that order has been for some time extinct.

As there are several protestant inhabitants in the town, it is the residence of a rector, and divine service is regularly performed agreeably to the rites of the established church of England.

On the banks of the river already mentioned, and about nine miles up its course, an iron foundry, which was first worked in 1737, is situated. The manufacture of ore into cast, as well as hammered iron is here carried on to a considerable extent. The works, and the soil in which the ore is found, are the property of government, and they are rented by a company at Quebec, on lease, at the rate of eight hundred pounds per annum. The ore lies in horizontal strata, and near the surface. It is composed of masses, easily detached from each other, perforated, and the holes filled with ochre. It possesses softness, and friability, and for promoting its fusion, a grey limestone, found in its vicinity, is used. The hammered iron is soft, pliable, and tenacious, and has the quality of being but little subject to the influence of rust. The latter property, is probably derived from the materials employed in its fusion. For this purpose, wood only is applied, which is highly preferable to mineral coal.

LAKE OF ST. PETER.

Lake Saint Peter is formed by an expansion of the waters of the Saint Lawrence, to the breadth of from fifteen to twenty miles, and its length is twenty-one miles. It is in general, of small depth, many parts of the channel, being not more than ten or eleven feet deep, and it sometimes occurs, that large vessels here run aground. The tide scarcely extends as far up as the town of Three Rivers, which is near two leagues farther down than the lake, and the current in the latter is extremely faint. Several small rivers here discharge their waters, among which are the Machiche, Du Loup, and Masquenongé, on the north, and the Nicolet and Saint Francis, on the south; on the banks of the latter, an Indian village of the same name, is situated, peopled by part of the Abinaquis tribe, among whom a missionary and an interpreter reside.

At the upper end of the lake, a variety of small islands is interspersed, some of which are partly cleared of their woods, and afford rich pasturage for cattle. In the spring, and autumn, they abound in wild fowl, particularly in ducks. These are the only islands that occur in the channel of the great river, from Orleans to this situation a distance of about 117 miles. From

hence to lake Ontario, it is frequently varied by clusters of islands, some of which are of great beauty and fertility.

The town of William Henry, or Sorel, in latitude 45° 55', longitude 73° 22', is agreeably situated at the confluence of the Sorel or Chambly river, with the Saint Lawrence, contains a protestant, and a Roman catholic church. The Sorel takes its rise from lake Champlain, and directing its course towards the north, runs through a fertile and pleasant country, where its borders are adorned by several valuable and productive farms. On the site of the town, a fort was constructed in 1665, by M. de Tracey, viceroy of New France, as a defence against the irruption of the Iroquois M. de Sorel a captain, superintended its execution, and from him this part of the river received its name. Between lake Champlain, and the junction of this stream with the Saint Lawrence, there are two forts situated on its banks, the one called St. John, composed of cedar pickets and earth, the other, Chambly, built of stone in a quadrangular form, and having the appearance of a castle. It is the only edifice in North America, which has any resemblance to that ancient mode of structure. Saint John is a frontier garrison, and a company of infantry, and some artillery, are generally stationed in it. In the months of June and July, great quantities of timber and boards formed into rafts, frequently of two or three hundred feet in length, are floated down this river, from the borders of lake Champlain. These materials are used in ship-building, and are also exported to England.

A particular species of grass which is long and rank, called by the Canadians, *l'herbe au lien*, grows upon some of the islands. This forms a very durable covering for stables and barns, and a roof composed of it, will last for many years, without the want of repair. At a few miles distant from Varennes, near a hill which rises in the midst of plains, the village of Boucherville is situated. It is inhabited by people of the most ancient families in the country, whose means are not affluent, but who, in this retreat, enjoy among themselves an agreeable society.

After a description of several small isles, of no importance, our author comes to

MONTREAL.

The length of the island of Montreal, he observes, is thirty miles, and its mean breadth about seven, its circumference being seventy miles. It may be said to owe its original settlement to the Abbè Quetus, who, in 1657, arrived from France, accompanied by deputies of the seminary of Saint Sulpicius, to take possession of this spot, and here to found a seminary. The

other inhabitants of the colony were gratified to find, that a body of men so respectable, had undertaken to clear, and settle an island, the efforts of whose first possessors, had hitherto been too languid. The seignorial rights of that fertile and valuable tract of territory, are still vested in the representatives of the order of Saint Sulpicius, which, in France, was swept away in the revolutionary torrent.

The city of Montreal, in latitude 45° 33′, longitude 73° 37′, is placed on the south side of the island of the same name, whose banks are here from ten to fifteen feet high, from the level of the water. It is built in the form of a parallelogram, extending from noth to south. A deep and rapid current flows between the shore and the island of Saint Helen; a strong north-east wind is therefore necessary, to carry vessels up to the town, and when that is wanting, they remain at anchor, at the lower end of the stream. This inconvenience might have been obviated, had the city been built about a mile below its present site, at a place called the Cross. The original founders were enjoined by the goverment of France, to make choice of a situation as high up the river, as large vessels could be navigated, and it appears that the injunction was literally obeyed.

The streets are airy, and regularly disposed, one of them extending nearly parallel to the river, through the whole length of the place; they are of sufficient width, being intersected at right angles, by several smaller streets, which descend from west to east. The upper street is divided into two, by the Roman Catholic church, adjoining to which there is a large open square, called the *Place d' Armes.*

The habitations of the principal merchants are neat and commodious, and their storehouses are spacious, and secured against risque from fires. They are covered with sheet iron or tin; without this precaution, as the roofs of dwellings in Canada are usually formed of boards, and sometimes with the exterior addition of shingles, they would, in summer, become highly combustible from without, and liable to ignition from a small spark of fire. The houses which are protected in the former manner, will last, without need of repairs, for a considerable number of years.

The town was enclosed by a stone fortification, which, having long fallen to ruins, is now in a great measure levelled, or removed. It was thus fortified, to guard its inhabitants against the frequent irruptions, of the Iroquois, and the walls were never in a state to resist the attack of a regular army. An act of the colonial legislature, was some time ago passed, for their total demolition. This has in a great degree been carried into effect,

and the place is now rapidly improving in extension, as well as in neatness of edifices.

Montreal is divided into the upper and lower towns, although the difference of level between them, exceeds not twelve or fifteen feet. In the latter are the public market, held twice in the week, and the Hotel Dieu. The upper town contains the cathedral, the English church, the convent of Recollets, that of the sisters of Notre Dame, the Seminary, the Goverment house, and the Court of Law. The religious edifices are constructed with more solidity than taste, and all of them are possessed of extensive gardens.

The Hotel Dieu, founded by Madame de Boullion in 1644, have a superior and thirty nuns, whose principal occupation consists in administering relief to the sick, who are received into that hospital. A large room in the upper part of the building, is appropriated as a ward for female, and one immediately under it, for male patients. As the institution was intended for public benefit, the medicines were, during the French government, supplied at the expence of the crown. The fund by which it was supported being vested in Paris, was lost in consequence of the revolution. Its present slender sources, are chiefly derived from some property in land.

The General Hospital stands on the banks of the river, and is separated from the town by a small rivulet. It owes its establishment, 1753, to a widow lady named Youville: it contains a superior, and ninteen nuns.

A natural wharf, very near to the town, is formed by the depth of the stream, and the sudden declivity of the bank. The environs of Montreal, are composed of four streets extending in different directions. That of Quebec on the north, Saint Lawrence towards the west, and the Recollet and Saint Antoine towards the south; in the latter is placed the college, which has been lately rebuilt. These, together with the town, contain about twelve thousand inhabitants.

The mountain is about two miles and a half distant from the town. The land rises, at first by gentle gradations, and is chiefly occupied for gardens and orchards, producing apples and pears of a superior quality. The more steep parts of the mountain, continue to be shaded by their native woods. The northern extremity, which is the most lofty, assumes a more abrupt acclivity with a conical form, and the remains of the crater of a volcano, are found among the rocks. This elevated spot, about 700 feet above the level of the river, is of a long shape, and extends upwards of two miles from north to south, subsiding towards the center, over which a road passes, and

again rising in rugged masses, clothed with trees. A house and gardens, belonging to, and occupied by the members of the Seminary, are agreeably situated on the eastern declivity.

The scene displayed from the summit of the mountain, which is the only eminence on the island, is, on every side, extensive and rich. The city of Montreal, the cultivated lands, the habitations interspersed among trees, the great river rapidly dashing into clouds of white foam, over the rocks of La Chine, and sweeping its silver course around a variety of islands; the lofty mountain of Chambly, with those of Beleuil, and Boucherville, compose the scenery towards the east. That on the north, though of equal fertility, is less diversified.

The most favourable view of the town, is from the opposite island of Saint Helen, where the mountain appears in the back ground. The eastern coast of the river, on which is Longueuil Saint Lambert, and la Prairie de la Madelene, is well cultivated and thickly inhabited.

At the breaking up of the winter, the buildings of the town, which are situated near the river, are sometimes subject to damage, by the accumulation of large fragments of ice, impelled by the rapidity of the current, already described.

Montreal being placed one degree and sixteen minutes south from Quebec, enjoys a more favourable climate. The soil is richer, and the duration of winter is not so long at the former place, as at the latter, by the space of six weeks. This superiority, with respect to climate and soil, renders it preferable to Quebec, as a place of constant residence. The markets are more abundantly supplied, and the articles of living, are sold at a more reasonable price, especially during winter, when the inhabitants of the United States, who reside upon lands bordering on Lower Canada, bring for sale, a part of the produce of their farms; quantities of cod, and of other fish, in a frozen state, are likewise conveyed thither in slays, from Boston.

The island contains nine parishes, Saint Laurent, Saint Genevieve, Saint Anne, Pointe Clare, Pointe aux Trembles, Longue Pointe, Sault au Recollet, Riviere des Prairies, and La Chine.

The first, and most considerable village, is that of the Sault Saint Louis, situated on the border of the river, opposite La Chine, and about four leagues from the city. It has twice changed its site, but has never been removed more than four miles from its former position. The church, and the dwelling of the missionary, are protected towards the north and south, by a stone wall, in which there are loop-holes for musquetry. The village, which is composed of about 150 houses, built of stone, contains upwards of 800 inhabitants, who are not less

dirty and slovenly in their persons, than in their habitations. This mission is considered as the most extensive of any of those among the domiciliated natives, in Canada. Its original settlers, belonging to the tribe of Iroquois, or Mohawks, were converted to christianity, and fixed there by missionaries, when the French colony in Canada was feeble in population, and circumscribed in extent. The principal support of these Indians, is derived from the cultivation of their grounds, and breeding hogs and poultry, more than from fishing and the chace. Their natural indolence will not, however, permit them to acquire habits of regular industry and labour. This insuperable aversion to a life of activity, they dignify with the title of independence, annexing to most of the employments of civilized life, the idea of slavery.

Their hunting grounds are at a considerable distance from their settlement, lying in the territory of the United States, around Fort George, Ticonderago and Crown Point, and extending sometimes along the coast of the Saint Lawrence, as far as the bay of Chaleurs; about one third of the inhabitants of the village, descend in winter, to hunt in those quarters. The wild animals, with which these regions formerly abounded, have now become extremely rare, not only from the immense numbers that have been killed, but on account of the increase of settlements and population; multitudes which the chace had yet spared, were driven in quest of a secure retreat, to the more remote forests.

The transport of merchandise, and other articles, from the island of Montreal to Kingston in Upper Canada, is conducted by means of bateaux, or flat-bottomed boats, narrow at each extremity, and constructed of fir planks. Each of these being about forty feet in length, and six feet across the widest part, generally contains twenty-five barrels, or a proportionate number of bales of blankets, cloths, or linens, and is capable of conveying, nine thousand pounds weight. Four men and a guide, compose the number of hands allotted for working a bateau. These are supplied with provisions, and with rum, and are allowed from eight to eleven dollars each, for the voyage to Kingston, and from thence down again to La Chine, the time of performing which, is from ten to twelve days. The wages of the pilot or guide, amount to twelve or fourteen dollars. Each bateau is supplied with a mast and sail, a grappling iron, with ropes, setting poles, and utensils for cooking. The bateaux when loaded, take their departure from La Chine, in number, of from four to eight or ten together, that the crews may be enabled to afford aid to each other, amid the difficulties, and laborious exertions required in effecting this voyage. About fifty bateaux are employed on this route, and bring down for the objects of com-

merce which are conveyed up, wheat, flour, salted provisions, peltry and potash.

From twenty to thirty bateaux are likewise kept in the service of government, for transporting necessaries for the troops, and stores for the engineer department; likewise articles of European manufacture, which are every year distributed in presents to the Indian tribes. There are thus engaged about three hundred and fifty men, whose occupation it is, during the sultry months of summer, to struggle against the most tremendous rapids. Besides these, near four hundred men, ascend in bark canoes, by the grand river of the Otaoua's, in a direct course to Saint Joseph's on Lake Huron, and from thence to the new establishment on Lake Superior, called Kamanastigua.

Lake Saint Louis, formed by the junction of part of the Outaouais river with the Saint Lawrence, is about ten miles in width, and contains the isle Perrot, already noticed, surrounded by the waters of the former, which, for a considerable way down, mingle not with those of the latter, a circumstance which is evinced by the difference in their colours. The parish of Chateau-gaye, and several small islands, occupy the south-east side of the lake, into which the cascades furiously pour their billows, and seem to prohibit to the traveller, any further progress by water. The bateaux are conducted to the western side, and ascend the first locks, at the top of which they are unloaded, and the goods are carted from thence, along a road on the borders of a river, as far as the village of the Cedars, a distance of five miles. Artificers and labourers, under the direction of a royal engineer, have, for some time past, been employed on the extension and improvement of these locks, which, when completed, will much tend to facilitate the transport, and communication with the upper country.

The cascades are about two miles in length, and flow among three different islands. The rapidity and force of the stream, arising from the great declivity of its bed, and the number of rocks and cavities which it contains, causes it to break into masses of white foam, moving in a direction the reverse of that of waves produced in a troubled ocean, by the agency of storms. They curl their resplendent tops, towards the quarter from whence they are impelled. The mind of a stranger is filled with admiration, on beholding, in the calmest, and finest weather, all the noise, effect, and agitation, which the most violent conflict between the winds and waters, is capable of exhibiting.

In a branch of these cascades, near the locks on the western shore, several bateaux, loaded with soldiers belonging to the army under the command of the late lord Amherst, were lost in 1760, through ignorance of the pilots, who undertook to conduct them.

Somewhat higher up, on the same coast of the river, and not far from the land, is the Split Rock, close to which, the boats pass, in descending. The current sweeps along the side of this rock, and great attention in steering is required, for, on a too near approach, the bateau would be subject to the danger of being lost.

The rapids of the Cedars, are about three miles distant from the highest part of the Cascades, and are formed amid a cluster of islands. The river, for about a mile and a half above, assumes a sudden declivity and a winding course. An awful and solemn effect is produced, by the incessant sound, and rapid motion of the ever-swelling waves, which, covered with effulgent whiteness, drive along with irresistible fury. The empty bateaux are here dragged successively with ropes, by the joint efforts of eight or ten men to each, who walk up the shore, until they arrive at the village, near which these rapids commence. In descending, the bateaux are steered near the western shore, to avoid the tremendous and more broken swell, which in some places, is interspersed with rocks. Although this course is not unaccompanied by danger, the Canadians are in general so experienced and expert, that an accident almost never occurs.

CEDAR VILLAGE.

The village of the Cedars is charmingly situated on the banks of the Saint Lawrence; it contains a church, and about fifty houses. The appearance of the waters, and of the rich and verdant islands around which they wind their course, exhibits an assemblage uncommonly interesting, and the glistening rapids of the *Coteau du Lac*, give a lively termination to the scene. The current from the latter place, to the Cedars, is, in most situations so powerful, that the bateau men are necessitated to make use of their setting poles, which are about seven feet in length, and shod with iron. As the current impels the vessel towards the shore, the men place them along that side which is inwards, and push it forward, by the pressure of each upon his pole, at the same instant; the bateau, by these united efforts, is forced up the stream, and the inpulsive movement is continued, by thus setting the poles in the bed of the waters, and by a reiteration of the same exertions. This operation, although fatiguing and laborious in the extreme, they will prolong for the space of several hours. When the current is too powerful for the use of poles, the bateau is dragged by a long rope, the men engaged in this office, walking, as has been before described, along the banks of the river. In the less rapid streams, the oars are used, and when the wind is favourable, and the current not strong, recourse is had to the sail.

At the Coteau du Lac Saint François, the bateaux again ascend by locks, where a certain duty is payable on spirituous liquors, wines, and some other articles imported into Upper Canada, although the limits of that province are placed some miles higher up.

The first township in Upper Canada is called Lancaster, upon the north shore of Lake Saint Francis, watered by three small rivers, extending nine miles in front, towards the lake, and twelve miles in depth. The adjoining settlement of Charlottenburg, has, in its front, several small islands, and is watered by two branches of the river *aux Raisins*, which winds its course through a considerable part of the township, until it joins the lake. Between the latter settlement and Cornwall a narrow tract intervenes, which is the property of the Indians of Saint Regis.

The river Gamansque, deriving its source from a lake of the same name, takes its course through the township of Leeds, and possesses, at its mouth, a good harbour for vessels.

Between the last named settlement and Kingston, Pittsburgh intervenes. Howe island stretches in a long and narrow form near the front of these two townships. From Pointe au Bodet to Kingston the distance is one hundred and twenty miles, and in that space are contained above eighty water-mills, the most considerable of which are erected upon the river Gananoque. Roads have some years ago been opened, and wooden bridges constructed over the intervening creeks and rivers. From *Point au Bodet* downwards a way for travellers on horseback has been cut through the woods, which is yet scarcely practicable for wheeled carriages. Many parts of this road, as well as of those in the vicinity of Kingston, are at times rendered almost impassable by considerable falls of rain, the altitude of the trees on each side precluding the rays of the sun. After a fall of snow, in winter, travelling by land is rendered much more easy.

Settlements have been commenced in upwards of thirty townships, situated on the southward of the Outaouais or Great River, upon whose margin many of them terminate. Others are watered by the river Rideau, and by that of Petite Nation, with the lakes and streams of the Gananoque, affording a variety of places convenient for the erection of mills. These rivers abound in carp, sturgeon, and perch; the ponds afford green and other turtle, likewise fish of different species. The soils in their vicinity produce timber, whose quality depends on position and fertility. The dry lands, which are usually the most elevated, afford growth to oak and hickory: the low grounds produce walnut, ash, poplar, cherry, sycamore, beech, maple, elm, and other woods, and in some places there are swamps covered by cedar and cypress trees.

DESCRIPTION OF KINGSTON.

Kingston is charmingly situated on the northern coast of the Saint Lawrence, not far from Lake Ontario, in north latitude, 44° 8', and in west longitude from Greenwich 75° 41'. This town was begun in the year 1784, and has continued ever since that period to advance in a progressive state of improvement, to which the judicious choice of situation, and the fertility of the lands in its vicinity, have doubtless greatly contributed. Besides several commodious dwellings constructed of stone of an excellent quality, it contains a barrack for troops, a gaol and court-house, an episcopal church, an hospital, and several extensive storehouses. At this place the vessels belonging to government, used in navigating Lake Ontario, are constructed; and from hence merchandise and other articles which are conveyed from the lower province in bateaux are embarked to be transported to Niagara, York, and other settlements bordering on the lake. The largest vessels in this service do not exceed two hundred tons burthen, but the usual size is from eighty to a hundred tons. At Kingston there are two coves or inlets where vessels come to anchor, and on which wharfs are constructed for loading or discharging their cargoes. That appropriated for the vessels of government is at some distance from the town, and is formed by a promontory on the east, and a peninsula called Point Frederick. On this are placed the naval store and yard for building these vessels. A master builder with some artificers resides upon the spot, and is kept in constant employ. The house of the deputy commissary, and those of some other persons in the service, stand likewise upon this peninsula. The other cove, much more considerable than the last, is formed between the town and the point already mentioned. Both of these inlets are exposed, when the wind blows with violence from the south or south-west, and drives before it from the lake, a succession of swelling billows.

The number of vessels here, in the king's service, is at present not more than three, two of which are appropriated for the military and one for the civil department. Each vessel carries from ten to twenty guns. The senior commander is stiled commodore. As all kinds of timber have a tendency to decay much sooner in fresh than in salt water; a vessel navigating the lakes will not last above six years, unless she be made to undergo considerable repairs. As those in the employ of government receive no repairs in their hulls they are generally laid up at the expiration of that period, and are replaced by other vessels entirely new.

The rapid advancement of the country in population and improvements of every description has proportionally extended the commerce; the number of vessels in the employ of the merchants

is considerable. These are usually built about ten miles below Kingston, and the timber used for their construction is red cedar or oak.

Grande Isle, now called Wolfe Island, not far from the town, is the largest which occurs between Montreal and Lake Huron. The timber found here, and on the south shore of the main land, is red oak, butternut, maple, ash, elm, and small pine. Carleton island, of small extent, intervenes between the latter and the south shore, and was formerly occupied as a military station; it has on either side a channel of sufficient depth for vessels, and two excellent harbours. It now properly belongs to the United States, as the boundary line of that government passes through the centre of Grande Isle. It contained a stone fort, with barracks of the same materials, storehouses, and other structures.

One of the smaller islands opposite to Kingston abounds with insects called ticks, resembling the little animal of the same name found upon cattle in Europe, but of a much larger size. In summer these insects spread themselves over the surface of the ground, over the trees, the herbage, and the rocks. They climb upon every object in their way, and to man their effects are highly disagreeable, particularly if they gain the head, from whence they are with difficulty dislodged. Without producing any degree of pain they will gradually insinuate themselves beneath the skin, and there establish their quarters. To horses or cattle which have been sent to graze on this island, the ticks, from their multitudes, have been frequently fatal.

LAKE ONTARIO.

Lake Ontario is in length 160 miles, and in circumference about 450 Its depth in many places remains unascertained. The center has been sounded with a line of 350 fathoms without finding bottom. The islands which it contains are, Amherst island, Basque, Carleton, Petit Cataroquoy, Cedar island, Isle Cauchois, Isle au Cochon, Isle du Chêne, Duck islands, Grenadier Island, Isles au Galloo, Isle la Force, Isle au Forêt, Gage island, Howe island, Nicholas island, Orphan island, Isle de Quinté, Isle Tonti, Isles aux Tourtes, Wolfe island or Grande isle, and Wapoose island. The land on the north-east coast of Lake Ontario is low, and in some situations marshy. The inlets, or little bays, are, from their position, considerably exposed to the swell of the waters and the influence of the winds.

The vicinity of Kingston affords valuable quarries of durable white stone, and the soil in general is intermixed with rocks, a circumstance which, however, is not prejudicial to its productive quality.

Ernest town is opposite to Amherst island, and is watered by

two small rivers. Camden lies on its north side, and Richmond on its west; the river Appenee, on which there are excellent mills, runs through the two last townships. The bay of Quinté is formed by the peninsula of Prince Edward, by another peninsula, containing part of the townships of Adolphus and Frederick, and by the continent on the north, comprehending the townships of Mohawks, Thurlow and Sidney. This bay affords, throughout its winding extent, a safe and commodious harbour, sheltered from the storms by which the lake is frequently agitated. The river Moira here empties itself, after having traversed the township of Thurlow; the Trent, formerly called the Quinté, the outlet of several small lakes, flows into the head of the bay, at the eastward of the isthmus, or carrying place. Part of one of the tribes of Mohawks, or Iroquois, has a settlement in the township. This tract is nine miles in front on the bay, and about twelve miles in depth. A chief named Captain John, is at the head of these natives, who, preferring this situation, separated from the rest of their tribe, whose village is on the Grand River, or Ouse, which disembogues its waters into the north-east side of the Lake Erie.

On the south side of the Trent, there are salt-springs; waters impregnated with salt have likewise been found in other situations in this province, but the salt which has been produced from them was found by no means to possess the properties of that procured from the water of the ocean, and a great part of the provisions which have been cured with it, and sent in barrels to Quebec, for the use of the troops, has been found, on inspection, unfit for use.

The harbour of Newcastle, is formed by the township of Cramahé, and Presque Isle. Between the township of Sidney, and the latter, that of Murray intervenes. Those of Haldimand, Hamilton, and Hope, are beautified and fertilized by a variety of little streams, upon some of which, mills are erected. Clarke, Darlington, Whitby, and Pick ring, follow in succession, in proceeding to the westward; at the latter, there is a productive salmon and sturgeon fishery, in a river called Duffin's Creek, which is usually open, and large enough for the reception of boats, at most seasons of the year. The township of Scarborough presents banks of much greater elevation towards the lake, than any part of the northern coast of that vast collection of waters. All the townships already noticed, are copiously watered by rivulets, at whose mouths there are ponds and low lands capable of being drained and converted into meadows. In the rear of the township of Murray, is that of Seymour; and Cramahé, Haldimand, and Hamilton, have contiguous to them on the northward, the townships of Percy, Alnwick, and Dives.

Behind Scarborough there is a German settlement upon the river New, which, flowing through Pickering, disembogues itself into

YORK, THE SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.

York, or Toronto, the seat of government in Upper Canada, is placed in forty-three degrees and thirty-five minutes of north latitude, near the bottom of a harbour of the same name. A long and narrow peninsula, distinguished by the appellation of Gibraltar Point, forms and embraces this harbour, securing it from the storms of the lake, and rendering it the safest of any around the coasts of that sea of fresh waters. Stores and block-houses are constructed near the extremity of this point. A spot called the garrison stands on a bank of the main land, opposite to the point, and consists only of a wooden block-house, and some small cottages of the same materials, little superior to temporary huts. The house in which the Lieutenant-governor resides is likewise formed of wood, in the figure of a half square, of one story in height, with galleries in the center. It is sufficiently commodious for the present state of the province, and is erected upon a bank of the lake, near the mouth of Toronto bay. The town, according to the plan, is projected to extend to a mile and a half in length, from the bottom of the harbour, along its banks. Many houses are already completed, some of which display a considerable degree of taste. The advancement of this place to its present condition has been effected within the lapse of six or seven years, and persons who have formerly travelled in this part of the country, are impressed with sentiments of wonder, on beholding a town which may be termed handsome, reared as if by enchantment, in the midst of a wilderness. Two buildings of brick at the eastern extremity of the town, which were designed as wings to a center, are occupied as chambers for the upper and lower house of assembly. The scene from this part of the basin is agreeable and diversified; a block-house, situated upon a wooded bank, forms the nearest object; part of the town, points of land cloathed with spreading oak-trees, gradually receding from the eye, one behind another, until terminated by the buildings of the garrison and the spot on which the governor's residence is placed, compose the objects on the right. The left side of the view comprehends the long peninsula which incloses this sheet of water, beautiful on account of its placidity, and rotundity of form; the distant lake, which appears bounded only by the sky, terminates the whole.

A rivulet, called the Don, runs in the vicinity of the town, and there are likewise other springs by which this settlement is watered. Yonge-street, or the military way leading to Lake

Simcoe, and from thence to Gloucester-bay on Lake Huron, commences in the rear of the town. This communication, which, in time, will be productive of great utility to the commerce of the country, is opened as far as Lake Simcoe, and as it is considerably shorter than the circuitous route, by the straits of Niagara, Lake Erie, and Detroit, must become the great channel of intercourse from this part of the province to the north-west county. Lots of two hundred acres are laid out on each side of Yonge-street, every lot having the width of four hundred yards on the street. Gwillimbury, a settlement in the interior parts of the country, is thirty-two miles to the northward of York, and communicates with Lake Simcoe, through Holland river, which runs into Cook's bay on that lake. Somewhat to the westward there are plains thinly planted with oak-trees, where the Indians cultivate corn. As the lake opens on the eye of the traveller, some small islands disclose themselves, of which Darling's, in the eastern part, is the most considerable. To the westward there is a large deep bay, called Kempenfelt's, from whose upper extremity is a short carrying-place to the river Nottuasaga, which discharges itself into Iroquois bay, on Lake Huron. Francis island is placed on the north end of the former lake, and a safe anchorage for vessels is presented between it and the shore. The shortest road to Lake Huron is across a small neck of land, which separates Lake Simcoe from a smaller lake. The Matchedash river, which has its source in the former, affords a more circuitous passage to the northward and westward, and is, in every part, navigable for boats of any size, excepting at the rapids, which present situations for mills. The soil, on either side of this river, is of an inferior quality. It discharges itself into a bay of the same name to the eastward, which receives also North and South rivers, and forms a junction with a yet larger basin already noticed, called Glocester or Sturgeon bay, in the mouth of which lies Prince William Henry's island, open to Lake Huron. On a peninsula, in this basin, ruins of a French settlement are yet extant; the harbour of Penetanguishene is formed between two promontories, around which there is soil well suited for cultivation. This harbour possesses sufficient depth of water, and the anchorage for vessels is safe. The township of Markham, in the rear of York and Scarborough, is settled by Germans.

To the westward of the garrison of York are the remains of an old French fort called Toronto; adjoining to this situation there is a deep bay, receiving into it the river Humber, between which and the head of Lake Ontario, the Tobyco, the Credit, and two other rivers, with a number of smaller streams, join that immense body of waters. These abound in fish, particu-

larly in salmon, for which the Credit is celebrated; a house of entertainment for passengers is established on the banks of this river.

The tract of territory between the Tobyco and the head of the lake, is frequented only by erratic tribes of Missasagues, which descend from the northward. Burlington bay is formed by a point of land extending from south to north, leaving only a small outlet, which connects it with the lake. Over this a wooden bridge is constructed, and at the south end of the beach, an inn, called the King's-head, is kept for the accommodation of travellers.

The bay now mentioned, presents a combination of objects, as beautiful and romantic in their kind, as any which the interior of America can boast. A bold, rocky, and picturesque promontory, separates it from a marshy lake, called Coot's Paradise, which abounds in game, and pours thither the tribute of its waters. Between Burlington bay and Niagara, a multitude of small rivers join the lake, the most distinguished of which are those called the Twelve and the Twenty. These rivers, previous to their departure from their channels, spread themselves behind elevated beaches which impede their courses, and finding only a small opening through which to flow, become dammed up, and formed spacious basins within; their banks are elevated, but not rugged, and are generally covered with pine-trees of a large growth. The tract bordering on this part of the lake, is denominated the county of Lincoln; and contains twenty townships which are well settled, and rapidly increasing in population.

The traveller, by entering Lake Ontario on the east, meets with Grenadier Island, at the distance of eighteen miles from Kingston, and near the southern coast; which is, properly speaking, the right bank of the Saint Lawrence, in its course towards the ocean; this island is a league in length from east to west, and is about sixty yards from the shore. In pursuing this route, the first river which presents itself, flows into the lake from a north-east direction, in ascending whose course about two leagues and a half, a water-fall of twenty-five feet in height becomes disclosed to the view; a swamp is found near its summit. The depth of water in the river is from three to one fathom; the banks are rocky, but the soil above them gives sufficient indications of fertility. The entrance of the river is six acres wide, contracting by degrees to one acre, and becoming yet more narrow at the fall. Somewhat to the westward, the largest of the Isles au Galloo is situated, which, with a peninsula on the main coast, forms a harbour for vessels, having a depth of from five to seven fathoms of water, and a good bottom for anchorage. Proceeding around the coast to a bay running east-north-east, we

sounded from the north point to a small island, and found its breadth three acres, having from five to ten fathoms of water, with a muddy bottom. Large vessels might anchor near the shore on either side, but that on the south is most secure, on account of a peninsula which precludes the effects of stormy weather. Two miles and a half from hence, another bay occurs, in ascending which there is a river with islands of rock at its entrance, whose rapidity increases in proportion to the distance from its mouth, and renders it necessary to have recourse to setting-poles, to push the canoe up the stream. For fifteen acres up its course, the water is three fathoms deep, but decreases to four feet in the rapid parts. The rocks on each side are at least forty feet in altitude. On the south shore the land rises yet more considerably, and gives growth to forests of fine oak timber. Villiers bay is about two miles wide at its entrance, and contains from six to seven fathoms of water, with a clayey bottom. Not far from hence there is yet another bay, whose position is towards the south, being half a mile in breadth, with five fathoms in depth of water. The land here assumes a bolder aspect, rising for near a mile of extent, into cliffs of upwards of eighty feet high, and afterwards gradually declining. The soil on their summits is fertile, producing woods of a hard nature. The name of the last mentioned bay, is Hungry bay, or *Baye de la Famine*, so called by M. de la Barre, Governor-general of Canada, who in 1684, on an expedition against the Iroquois, lost in this situation, a great part of his army, which perished from hunger and sickness. A considerable stream, called Black river, pours itself into this bay, and about two leagues further to the southward, another branch of the same river joins its waters with the lake. The channel between the first or most easterly isle of Galloo, and the south shore, being large, with from eight to ten fathoms of water, vessels may with safety be steered through it. To the westward of this, there are two other isles of the same name, and between these, two smaller isles, with a good channel intervening. Several rivulets occur in coasting between the western promontory of Hungry bay, and the river Onondago, which is placed near thirty miles from thence, and falls into the lake in latitude 43° 20′ The channel at the entrance is twelve feet in depth, and twenty-four within. It is the discharge of several small rivers and lakes, of which the most considerable is that of Onedia. On ascending the river, whose channel is bounded by banks of great elevation, a water-fall, eighty feet high, and half a mile in breadth, presents itself to the view. At the distance of two acres above, there is a second fall, which, although not more than twenty-five feet high, is beautifully romantic. The brilliancy of the foaming waters, which throw themselves with

the most rapid motion over the perpendicular rocks, produces an effect magnificent and charming, and sheds a gleam of delight over the mind of the wearied traveller. Amid the variety of sensations, which scenes like this contribute to excite, is that of surprise, that a fluid body should for ages have continued to move with such a velocity, without a failure of the sources from whence it is supplied.

> "Rusticus expectat dum defluit amnis, ast illa
> "Volvitur, et volvetur, in omne volubilis ævum."

The timber in this vicinity consists principally of white and red oak, and chesnut. The soil above is level, and of a fertile nature. Fort Oswego is erected on a lofty bank, on the eastern side of this river, and is upwards of forty-five miles from Kingston. The old fort, of which no vestige remains, was built in 1722, by a gentleman of the name of Burnet, son of the celebrated bishop, who obtained for this purpose, permission of the Iroquois in whose territory it was situated. It formed a key to Hudson's river, on the North, and protected against the French the trade with the Indians who inhabited the borders of the lake. The bar between the spot where this defence stood, and the new fort, is eighty feet in width, and twelve feet in depth. The fort was delivered over to the American government in 1794. It was taken by the French in 1756, when a great part of the garrison was massacred by the savages. Beyond the fort, for about a mile, the depth of water is from four to five fathoms, augmenting further up to nine fathoms.

Pursuing our voyage, we arrived at a large bay with a beautiful entrance from the lake, and ascended in quest of a river, but found only swampy grounds. This bay is two miles deep, having four and a half feet of water on the bar at the entrance, and from three to four fathoms, with a muddy bottom within. The points facing the lake are steep, and of considerable altitude, composed of strata of stone and earth. The depth about half a mile from the shore is eight fathoms, with a sandy bottom.

The bay of Goyogouin lies about sixteen miles to the westward of Onondago, and exhibits an aspect of fertility. It is five miles in extent, and two miles and a half in width, within the points of entrance. Near the west point there are twelve and thirteen feet water on the bar, but the center has no more than seven and a half feet. A peninsula well wooded, elevated, and in the form of a crescent, advances into the bay, and on entering it on the left there is a small island. No river was found in this situation.

Irondiquet bay is four miles to the eastward of the Genesee river. The depth at the distance of three miles from the coast

is eighteen fathoms. The entrance of the bay is flat, with four feet of water on its bar. The eastern side has many branches, and terminates in swamps. The river, at the southern extremity, discharges itself with a very gentle current.

The Genesee or Casconchiagon, by some persons called the New River is narrow, and contains not much water at its mouth on Lake Ontario: it however enlarges itself above, and forms a basin of sufficient depth to float vessels of two hundred tons. On ascending its course about two leagues, a fall of sixty feet in altitude, and occupying the whole breadth of the river, obtrudes itself on the view, and commands the admiration of the traveller. It pours, with plaintive sound, over a rock almost perpendicular, and, broken amid the variety of its movements, produces a curtain of resplendent whiteness. On pursuing the channel still higher up, many rapids and cascades present themselves throughout the numerous sinuosities of its course. From the source of this river, which runs upwards of three hundred miles, the Ohio is distant only thirty miles. The timber produced in the vicinity of the mouth of the Genesee, consists chiefly of white and red oak and chesnut. The soil above the fall is rather flat, and is of a fertile nature.

The old fort of Niagara, which was erected by the French in 1751, is placed in 43° 15′ of north latitude, on an angle which is formed by the east side of the Saint Lawrence and the vast diffusion of its waters into the lake. It is erected in the country of the Iroquois, and was for a series of years considered as the key to those inland seas of fresh water, which occupy so vast a portion of this part of North America. The ramparts of the fort are composed of earth and pickets, and contain within them a lofty stone building, which is occupied for barracks and for storerooms. The Americans are in possession of it, but seem to take no measures either for its repair or enlargement. As the waters of the lake make progressive encroachments on the sandy bank whose summit it occupies, the foundations of the buildings will, in a short time, be undermined. This fort was taken from the French in 1759 by Sir William Johnson.

The winters in this part of the country are inconsiderable, either for duration or severity, the snow seldom remaining on the ground for a longer period than five or six weeks.

About the year 1800, before the means of transport to the lower province became facilitated and improved, the inhabitants were at a loss to dispose of the produce of their farms. Since that period many thousand barrels of flour, quantities of salted beef and pork, butter and cheese, pot-ash, and numbers of live cattle, have annually been conveyed to Lower Canada, through the rapids and cascades of the Saint Lawrence, upon rafts of

timber, containing from five hundred to eight hundred barrels each, upon *scows*, a super or species of raft constructed of plank, without receiving from the waters any material injury. The conducting of that mode of transport, although at first difficult and unwieldy, has now become more familiar, and immense quantities of produce continue to flow every year into the lower province.

There are attached to settlements on the borders of the Saint Lawrence, advantages of transport superior to those of any inland country in America. The soil is unquestionably of the first quality, and is sufficiently varied by swells and ridges, to take off that sameness of effect which would result from a dead level country. Winter wheat is produced with the greatest certainty. The grain is heavier and more plump than any that is raised in the territories of the United States, except such as border upon this immense river. Grass is very natural to this country, and cattle fatten in summer upon the wild growth. Hemp and flax are produced in great perfection. The timber consists of oak, pine in all its varieties, sugar and curled maple, beech, basswood, hickory, black and white ash, sassafras, black and white birch, elm, walnut tree, butternut-tree, cherry-tree, and a variety of other woods.

The winter season is employed by the farmer in making staves for casks, squaring timber, or preparing plank and boards all of which may be disposed of to advantage at Montreal. In the spring the timber is formed into rafts, which are loaded with produce, and conducted down the river with great certainty, at any period during the summer season, without the inconvenience of waiting for a freshet, or an increase of the waters by rains, which can have but small influence on so vast a body. This circumstance alone adds a value to the establishments on its borders; for on all other rivers, except those of the first magnitude, they who mean to conduct rafts down their stream are compelled to be ready at the moment of a swell of the waters; and if they be so unfortunate as not to be prepared, an opportunity of carrying to market the productions of their farms becomes lost to them for the whole year: it likewise not unfrequently happens with many rivers, that the spring freshets are not sufficiently high to render it safe to venture down them. The farmer on the Saint Lawrence is assured he can send a barrel of flour for four shillings, and a barrel of potash for eight shillings, to the ship which comes from Europe.

In many branches of husbandry, the settlers of this country seem to display a superior degree of skill, and fields of corn are here to be seen as luxuriant and fine as in any part of the universe.

The mode of commencing a settlement is by cutting down the smaller wood and some of the large trees, collecting them into heaps and burning them. Some of the remaining trees are girdled, by cutting a groove all around through the bark, to impede the sap from mounting, and thus deprived of nourishment the branches cease to grow, and the leaves decay and fall to the ground. After passing a harrow over the soil, in order to turn it up, the grain is sown, the harrow is again used, and thus left without any further trouble the newly-cleared ground yields a copious increase.

A stranger is here struck with sentiments of regret on viewing the numbers of fine oak-trees which are daily consumed by fire, in preparing the lands for cultivation. The houses, with few exceptions, are here constructed of wood, but with a degree of neatness and taste for which we in vain might look among the more ancient settlements of the lower province.

The improvements of every description, in which for a few years past the province has been rapidly advancing, have, in some situations, already divested it of the appearance of a new-settled colony, and made it assume the garb of wealth and of long-established culture. The roads in the settled parts of the country are, in the summer season, remarkably fine, and two stage coaches run daily between Niagara and Chippawa, or Fort Welland, a distance of eighteen miles.

The scenery from Niagara to Queenstown is highly pleasing, the road leading along the summit of the banks of one of the most magnificent rivers in the universe; and on ascending the mountain, which is rather a sudden elevation from one immense plain to another, where the river becomes lost to the view, the traveller proceeds through a forest of oak-trees, until he becomes surprised, and his attention is arrested by the falls presented to the eye through openings now cut in the woods on the steep banks by which they are confined.

QUEENSTOWN.

Queenstown is a neat and flourishing place, distinguished by the beauty and grandeur of its situation. Here all the merchandise and stores for the upper part of the province are landed from the vessels in which they have been conveyed from Kingston, and transported in waggons to Chippawa, a distance of ten miles, the falls and the rapid and broken course of the river rendering the navigation impracticable for that space. Between Niagara and Queenstown the river affords, in every part, a noble harbour for vessels, the water being deep, the stream not too powerful, the anchorage good, and the banks on either side of considerable altitude.

The mountain already noticed is formed by the land assuming a sudden acclivity of upwards of three hundred feet from one horizontal plain to another, and extends from east to west for a considerable way, the river holding its course through its center and cutting it asunder. The perpendicular banks on either side are near four hundred feet in height, from the level of the water below to their summit. Their strata are similar not only in altitudes but in substance. A little way below the bank on which the town is placed, there is a spot rising about twenty feet from the side of the river upon whose surface a quantity of stones is placed which appear to have been deposited there for a series of years, and which have been evidently formed in currents of water.

Since the settlement of the country the river has not been perceived to rise to that height. These circumstances seem to afford probable ground for conjecture that the stream which now flows through the deep chasm of the mountain did at some former period throw itself from near the summit, and after sweeping away the rocks and soil from its present profound and rugged channel, extending upwards of nine miles from the precipice, whence the wide and stupendous flood continues now to fall.

THE WHIRLPOOL.

In tracing the course of the river higher up from Queenstown many singular and romantic scenes are exhibited: the whirlpool, which is about four miles from that place, is a basin formed by the current in the midst of lofty precipices clothed with woods. Previous to its entering this bay the stream drives with awful roar, its broken interrupted waters over a sudden slope upwards of fifty feet in height, and thus proceeds foaming past the bed it afterwards takes, which being around the angle of a precipitous promontory, its weight and velocity oblige it to pass on and to make the circuit of the basin before it can flow through that channel. It has apparently made an effort to break through the bank to the westward, but the rock was probably too solid. The strata to the northward were found more penetrable, and through these it has forced a passage. A tide rising to the height of two and a half feet, and again falling every minute, is observable all around the basin; this phenomenon may be produced by the impulse communicated to it from the torrent which causes it alternately to swell and to recoil from the beach.

This gulph usually contains a quantity of floating timber, which continues to revolve in the eddy about once in half an hour, and will sometimes remain in this state for months, until it be drawn off by the current. At one particular part all floating substances

are made to rise on one end, after which they are swallowed down by the vortex and for a time disappear.

FALLS OF NIAGARA.

The falls of Niagara surpass in sublimity every description which the powers of language can afford of that celebrated scene, the most wonderful and awful which the habitable world presents. Nor can any drawing convey an adequate idea of the magnitude and depth of the precipitating waters. By the interposition of two islands the river is separated into three falls, that of the Great Horse-shoe on the west or British side, so denominated from its form, and those of Fort Slausser and Montmorenci on the eastern or American side. The larger island is about four hundred yards in width, and the small island about ten yards. The three falls, with the islands, describe a crescent, and the river beneath becomes considerably contracted. The breadth of the whole, at the pitch of the waters, including the curvatures which the violence of the current has produced in the Horse-shoe and in the American falls may be estimated at a mile and a quarter, and the altitude of the Table Rock, from whence the precipitation commences is one hundred and fifty feet.

Along the boundaries of the river, and behind the falls, the elevated and rocky banks are every where excavated by sulphureous springs, the vitriolic acid uniting with the limestone rock and forming plaster of Paris, which is here and there scattered amid the masses of stones which compose the beach beneath.

These excavations extend in many places to a distance of fifty feet underneath the summit of the bank.

Casting the eye from the Table Rock into the basin beneath, the effect is awfully grand, magnificent, and sublime. No object intervening between the spectator and that profound abyss, he appears suspended in the atmosphere.

The lofty banks and immense woods which environ this stupendous scene, the irresistible force, the rapidity of motion displayed by the rolling clouds of foam, the uncommon brilliancy and variety of colours and of shades, the ceaseless intumescence, and swift agitation of the dashing waves below, the solemn and tremendous noise, with the volumes of vapour darting upwards into the air, which the simultaneous report and smoke of a thousand cannon could scarcely equal, irresistibly tend to impress the imagination with such a train of sublime sensations, as few other combinations of natural objects are capable of producing, and which terror lest the treacherous rock crumble beneath the feet by no means contributes to diminish.

The height of the descent of the rapids above the great falls is fifty-seven feet eleven inches. The distance of the commence-

ment of the rapids above the pitch, measured by the side of the island is one hundred and forty-eight feet, and the total altitude from the bottom of the falls to the top of the rapids is two hundred and seven feet. The projection of the extreme part of the Table Rock is fifty feet four inches

The large island extends up the river about three quarters of a mile, and the rapids between that and the western banks are much diversified; in one situation near the island there is a fall of about sixteen feet in height, the vapour from which is distinctly visible. Several small islands are formed towards the west side of the river.

From a settlement called Birch's Mills, on level ground below the bank, the rapids are displayed to great advantage; they dash from one rocky declivity to another, and hasten with foaming fury to the precipice. The bank along whose summit the carriage-road extends, affords many rich although partial views of the falls and rapids. They are from hence partly excluded from the eye by trees of different kinds, such as the oak, the ash, the beech, fir, sassafras, cedar, walnut, and tulip-trees.

About two miles farther down the side of the river, at a situation called Bender's, an extensive and general prospect of the falls, with the rapids and islands, is at once developed to the eye of the spectator. On descending the bank, which in several places is precipitous and difficult, and on emerging from the woods at its base a wonderful display of grand and stupendous objects is at once expanded to the view. From amid immense fragments of rock and lacerated trees which have descended in the current of the waters, the eye is directed upwards towards the falls, that of Fort Slausser being on the left, and the Great Horse-shoe fall immediately in front. On the right is a lofty bank profusely covered with diversity of foliage, beyond which the naked excavated rock discloses itself. As the river here contracts to the breadth of about half a mile, the fall on the American side becomes nearest to the eye, and its waters tumble over a rock which appears to be perpendicular, and nearly in a straight line across to the island, the curvatures being, from the point now described, not perceptible. The rock is, however, excavated, and at the pitch has been worn from continual abrasion by the fall into a serrated shape, whence the masses of foam pour down in ridges which retain their figure from the summit to the bottom. Numbers of stones which have been torn away from the precipice are accumulated throughout the whole extent below, and receive the weighty and effulgent clouds of broken waters which again dash from thence into the basin.

The Horse-shoe fall is distinguished not only by its vastness but by the variety of its colours. The waters at the edge of the

Table Rock are of a brownish cast, further on of a brilliant white, and in the center, where the fluid body is greatest, a transparent green appears. Around the projection, which is in the form of a horse-shoe, the water is of a snowy whiteness. A cloud of thick vapour constantly arises from the center, part of which becomes dissolved in the higher regions of the atmosphere, and a part spreads itself in dews over the neighbouring fields. This cloud of vapour has frequently, in clear weather, been observed from Lake Ontario at the distance of ninety miles from the falls.

The bed of the river is so deep that it undergoes not such a degree of agitation as the reception of those bodies of water perpetually pouring down into it might be supposed to produce. Except at the places immediately underneath each of the falls there are no broken billows; the stream is comparatively tranquil, but the water continues for a long way down its course to revolve in numerous whirlpools. Its colour is a deep blue; quantities of foam float upon the surface and almost cover a large bay formed between projecting points, containing several insulated rocks.

Proceeding along the beach to the basis of the Table Rock, the distance is about two miles, and the way thither is over masses of stone which have been torn from the bank above, and over trees which have been carried down the falls, and have been deposited in the spring by bodies of ice in situations above twenty feet in height from the level of the river.

The projection of the Table Rock, it has been remarked, is fifty feet, and between it and the falls a lofty and irregular arch is formed, which extends under the pitch almost without interruption to the island. To enter this cavern, bounded by the waters and rock, and to turn the view towards the falls, the noise, the motion, and the vast impulse and weight exhibited, seem to cause every thing around them to tremble, and at once occupy and astonish the mind. Sudden and frequent squalls accompanied by torrents of rain issue from this gloomy cavern, the air drawn down by the waters is in part reverberated by the rock and thus discharges itself.

At this situation is illustrated the effect of an immense mass of waters, thrown from a prodigious height, after being forcibly propelled. The projectile, counteracted by the gravitative power, obliges the falling body to describe at first an ellipse, and then to assume the perpendicular direction in which it is received into the basin.

The salient groups in which, with gradations almost regular, the tumbling waters are precipitated, excite the awe and admiration of the spectator; the eye follows with delight the masses of

lustrous foam, varied by prismatic hues, and forming a wide and resplendent curtain.

About half a mile from hence, in descending the course of the river, and behind some trees which grow upon the lower bank, is placed the Indian ladder, composed of a tall cedar tree, whose bows have been lopped off to within three inches of the trunk, and whose upper end is attached by a cord of bark to the root of a living tree; the lower end is planted amid stones. It is upwards of forty feet in length, and trembles and bends under the weight of a person upon it. As this is the nearest way to the river side, many people descend by the ladder, led either by curiosity, or for the purpose of spearing fish, which in the summer are found in great abundance in this vicinity.

The spear in use is a fork with two or three prongs, with moving barbs, and fixed to a long handle. The fisherman takes possession of a prominent rock, from whence he watches for his prey, and when it approaches within his reach, he pierces it with his instrument, with an almost inevitable certainty.

The village of Chippawa or Fort Welland, is situated on each side of a river of the same name, which here joins the Saint Lawrence. A wooden bridge is thrown across this stream, over which is the road leading to Fort Erie. The former fort consists only of a large block-house near the bridge, on the northern bank, surrounded by lofty pickets; it is usually the station of a subaltern officer and twenty-five men, who are principally engaged in conducting to Fort Erie the transport of stores for the service of the troops in the upper part of the province, and for the engineer and Indian departments. After being conveyed by land from Queenstown, the provisions and other articles are here embarked in bateaux.

There are in the village some mercantile store-houses, and two or three taverns. The waters of the Chippawa are always of a deep brown colour, and are very unwholesome if used for culinary purposes; they enter the St. Lawrence about two miles above the falls, and although they be frequently broken, and rush into many rapids in their course thither, they seem obstinately to resist being mixed with the purer waters of that flood, and retain their colour in passing over the precipice. The foam produced in their precipitation is of a brownish hue, and forms the edge of the sheet which tumbles over the Table Rock. Their weight, and the depth of the descent, mingle them effectually with the waters in the basin beneath. The colour of the Chippawa is derived from that river passing over a level country, in many places swampy, and from quantities of decayed trees which tinge it with their bark. It is also impregnated with bituminous matter, which prevents it, until it has suffered the most violent

violent agitation and separation of particles, from incorporating with the more transparent and uncorrupted stream of the Saint Lawrence.

Opposite to the village of Chippawa the current becomes so powerful, that no boat can be ventured into it, without imminent danger of being swept away, and lost in the rapids. Between the village and the falls there are three mills; the lower for the manufacture of flour; the two upper mills, which are near to each other, and adjoining to the road, are for the purposes of sawing timber into boards, and for manufacturing iron. The latter scheme has hitherto failed of success: the logs for the saw-mill are conveyed down the current to this situation in a very singular manner. They are cut upon the borders of the Chippawa, and floated down to its mouth, where a reservoir, formed by a chain of hog-pens, is made to contain them. In proceeding downwards, in order to avoid being drawn into the vast vortex of the falls, small poles have been fixed together, from the reservoir to the mill, floating at the distance of eighteen or twenty feet from the shore. They are retained in their places by poles projecting from the land; and thus the chain of poles, rising and falling with the waters, and always floating on the surface, forms a species of canal, into which the logs are separately launched, and in this manner carried from the reservoir to the mill, a distance of more than a mile.

In the vicinity of this mill there is a spring of water, whose vapour is highly inflammable, and is emitted for a time with a considerable degree of force. If collected within a narrow compass, it is capable of supporting combustion for near twenty minutes, and of communicating to water placed over it, in a small, confined vessel, the degree of boiling temperature.

The Saint Lawrence at the confluence of the Chippawa, is upwards of a league in width, and is passed to the opposite shore in boats or bateaux, about three-quarters of a mile higher up than the village, and by the lower end of Navy island. The transport of goods by land to Fort Slausser, two miles above the east side of the falls, was formerly conducted from a place opposite to Queenstown. In passing through the cultivated grounds on this border of the river, immense mounds of earth, thrown up by multitudinous colonies of large black ants, are every where observable. The rapids on this branch of the river, although not so extensive, are nevertheless equally beautiful and romantic with those of the western branch. A spot at the distance of fifty yards from the pitch affords a most advantageous and pleasing display of a scene, which in every point of view is accompanied with sublimity. Trees and rocks form the nearest objects, and, between these and the islands, a lively picture is exhibited of

broken rapids dashing over the slippery rocks, which are hidden beneath the foaming torrents. Amid the sinuosities of the pitch, a part of the American fall is developed to the view of the spectator, and the Montmorenci fall is exposed about half way down its depth; the other parts of the eastern fall are concealed, whilst a portion of the waters beneath becomes disclosed. The inequalities of the precipice, which have been formed by the current, are here fully discoverable. Several small isles covered with woods appear near the central island, and add to the variety of the scene, which foliage of diversified verdure, overtopped here and there by the towering cedar, contributes to enliven and to adorn. The Horse-shoe fall beyond the whole, delights the mind with the rapidity of its movements, and the animated effulgence of its hues. From the station which we have now endeavoured to describe, is afforded the most perfect idea of the crescent formed by three falls, the islands, and the Table Rock.

To descend the perpendicular cliff on the eastern bank is attended with difficulty, and with some degree of peril. Few of the roots and vines which formerly hung downwards from the trees, any longer remain. In descending the craggy steep, the adventurer must cling to the rock with his hands and feet, moving onward with great caution. On his arrival at the base of the cliff, he is struck by a developement of scenery yet more awfully stupendous than that which had before been presented to his contemplation. Here nature, agitated by the struggles of contending elements, assumes a majestic and tremendous wildness of form. Here terror seems to hold his habitation. Here brilliancy, profundity, motion, sound, and tumultuous fury, mingle throughout the scene. The waters appear to pour from the sky with such impetuosity, that a portion is thrown back in clouds of vapour. The mind, expanded by the immensity and splendour of the surrounding objects, is disposed to give issue to the sensations of awe and wonder by which she is impressed, in ejaculations similar to that of the Psalmist of Israel, "Great and marvellous are thy works!!!"

The huge fragments of rock which have been thrown from the summit of the precipice, by the irresistible strength of the torrent, and which have fallen upon each other in towering heaps beneath, suggest to the imagination an idea of what may take place previous to the general consummation of this terrestrial scene, when ancient monuments of marble, under which princes of the earth have for ages slept, shall be burst asunder, and torn up from their foundations.

Can so vast, so rapid, and so continual a waste of water never drain its sources? These are inexhaustible; and the body which

throws itself down these cliffs, forms the sole discharge of four immense inland seas.

The effect produced by the cold of winter on these sheets of water thus rapidly agitated, is at once singular and splendid. Icicles of great thickness and length are formed along the banks, from the springs which flow over them. The sources, impregnated with sulphur, which drain from the hollow of the rocks, are congealed into transparent blue columns. Cones are formed by the spray, particularly on the American side, which have in several places large fissures disclosing the interior, composed of clusters of icicles, similar to the pipes of an organ. Some parts of the falls are consolidated into fluted columns, and the river above is seen partially frozen. The boughs of the trees in the surrounding woods are hung with purest icicles formed from the spray, and reflecting in every direction the rays of the sun, produce a variety of prismatic hues, and a lustre almost too refulgent to be long sustained by the powers of vision.

This part of the Saint Lawrence, which is called the Niagara river, issues from the eastern extremity of Lake Erie, and discharges itself into Lake Ontario, at the end of thirty-six miles, after undergoing the most violent agitations through an interrupted and sinuous channel. At its commencement from the former, its breadth is not more than half a mile, but it becomes afterwards enlarged, and separated into two branches by an island of fifteen miles in length. The current is powerful, and the navigation for vessels is rendered intricate by innumerable hidden rocks. In the vicinity of Navy Island there are two smaller isles.

The western bank between Chippawa and Lake Erie is almost entirely settled, and the road is level and in most places good. The Americans have, on their side the river, a road extending from Fort Slausser to Buffalo Creek, a settlement which contains several Indian and some white families. At a spot called the Black Rock, at the lower end of the rapids, a fort has been traced, and partly constructed, within the limits of the United States.

LAKE ERIE.

Lake Erie is near 300 miles in length, and 710 miles in circumference; it derives its name from the Eries or Cats, a native tribe which once dwelt on its borders. The landscape at the entrance exhibits a pleasing variety, consisting of water, points of land, level countries, and distant mountains. The coasts are cloathed with oak, ash, chesnut, apple, and cherry-trees. The south-east shore abounds in game and wild animals. The islands which it contains are Bass islands, Isle Bois blanc, Isle Celeron, Cunningham's Island, East Sister, Grose Isle, Middle Island,

Middle Sister, Pointe Pelée Isle, Saint George's Island, Ship Island, Sandusky Island, Turtle Island, and West Sister.

The old fort on the west side of the entrance into the lake, consists of no more than a few houses, a block-house of logs, with some habitations for commercial people, and one or two storehouses. A new stone fort, in the form of a quadrangle, is now constructing on rising ground behind the block-house. A company of soldiers is usually stationed here, and the men are chiefly employed in assisting to conduct the transport of stores. Two vessels in the service of the British government are used in navigating this lake.

The bottom of the lake consists of lime-stone rock of a bluish colour, with which are mingled many petrified substances, animal as well as vegetable. The lake is much exposed at its northern extremity, to gales of wind, which occasion its waters to rise to a very considerable height. Vessels are at these periods in some danger of being driven on shore, their cables being often cut asunder by the sharp and flinty edges of the rocks which compose the anchorage.

Miamis river empties itself into a bay of the same name, at the south-west end of Lake Erie. It was upon the banks of this river, at a short distance from its mouth, that a fort was constructed in 1794, and a garrison posted in it, to stop the progress of General Wayne, who, with an army of Americans, was marching against the fort of Detroit. Some of the sources of this river are not far from Wabache, which falls into the Ohio.

The navigation of Lake Erie, whose greatest depth does not exceed fifty fathoms, is frequently more tedious than that of the other lakes, on account of the changes of wind that are required to carry a vessel through it, and to enter the strait, which runs nearly from north to south. In some of the beautiful isles at its mouth there are remarkable caverns, abounding in stalactites.

THE DETROIT.

The old town and fort of Detroit, which, in 1796, was transferred to the government of the United States, is situated on the western border of the river, about nine miles below Lake Saint Claire. It contained upwards of two hundred houses; the streets were regular, and it had a range of barracks of a neat appearance, with a spacious parade on the southern extremity. The fortifications consisted of a stockade of cedar-posts, and it was defended by bastions made of earth and pickets, on which were mounted pieces of cannon sufficient to resist the hostile efforts of the Indians, or of an enemy unprovided with artillery. The garrison, in times of peace, consisted of about three hundred men, commanded by a field-officer, who discharged also the functions

of civil magistrate. The whole of this town was lately burnt to ashes, not a building remaining, except one or two block-houses.

In the month of July, 1762, Pontiac, a chief of the Miamis Indians, who preserved a deep-rooted hatred to the English, endeavoured to surprise the garrison of Detroit, with an intention of massacring the whole of the inhabitants; but an accidental discovery having been made of his plot, he and his people were spared by the commandant, who had them in his power, and were permitted to depart in safety. Far from entertaining any sentiment of gratitude for the generous conduct which had been shewn him, Pontiac continued for a considerable time to blockade the place, and several lives were lost on both sides by frequent skirmishes.

The strait above Hog Island becomes enlarged, and forms Lake Saint Claire, whose diameter is twenty-six miles, but whose depth is inconsiderable. Its islands are *Chenal écarté*, Harsen's Island, Hay Island, Peach Island, and Thompson's island. On the western side of this lake were two numerous villages of natives, not far from each other. The first of these, called Huron Tsonnontatex, was the same which, having long wandered towards the North, formerly fixed itself at the cascades of Saint Mary, and at Michilimakinac. The second was composed of Pouteouatamis. On the right, somewhat higher up, there was a third village, consisting of the Outaouais, inseparable companions of the Hurons, ever since both these tribes were compelled by the Iroquois to abandon their native territories.

The lake gives a passage to the waters of the three immense lakes beyond it, receiving them through a long channel, extending from north to south, called the river Saint Claire. The river la Tranche, or Thames, disembogues its waters on the south-east side; its banks are varied by natural meadows, and tracts of wood-lands. The projected town of Chatham is designed to be placed on a fork of this stream, about fifteen miles from its lower extremity, and is intended as a depot for building vessels. Its greatest disadvantage is a bar across its *embouchure*, in lake Saint Claire; but this is of sufficient depth for vessels of a smaller description, and for those of a larger size when lightened.

A village of Moravians, under the guidance of four missionaries from the United Brethren, is placed twenty miles above the intended site of Chatham. They established themselves in that situation with a design of converting the Indians, and their conduct is peaceable and inoffensive; their chief occupation is in cultivating their corn-fields, and making maple sugar. A chapel is erected in the village. Not far from hence there is a spring of petroleum.

In proceeding upwards, the sinuosities of the river are frequent, and the summits of the banks are rather elevated, but not broken; on either side are villages of the Delawars and Chippawas. Somewhat higher up, at the confluence of two forks of this river, is the site of which General Simcoe made choice for a town to be named London. Its position, with relation to the lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario, is central, and around it is a fertile and inviting tract of territory. It communicates with lake Huron by a northern, or main branch of the same river, and a small portage or carrying-place.

One of the branches of the Thames is not far distant from the Ouse, or Grand River. But the prospect of being enabled to embrace the advantages of this inland navigation, can only be contemplated at a distance. A period of many years must necessarily elapse before the population and improvements shall have attained that progressive state of prosperity, which will enable the inhabitants to bestow attention and expence on the modes of facilitating the more interior communication.

Along the banks of the Thames there are now several rich settlements, and new establishments are every week added to this, as well as to other parts of the neighbouring country, by the emigration of wealthy farmers from the United States, who bring with them their stock, utensils, and the money received for the sale of the lands they possessed.

Level grounds intervene to break the uniformity which would predominate on this river, were its borders all of equal height. These situations were formerly cultivated by native tribes. On the east side of the fork, between the two main branches, on a regular eminence, about forty feet above the water there is a natural plain, denuded of woods, except where small groves are interspersed, affording in its present state the appearance of a beautiful park, on whose formation and culture taste and expence had been bestowed.

LAKE HURON.

Lake Huron is, in point of magnitude, the second sea of fresh waters on the continent of America, and it may be added, on this terraqueous globe. Its form is triangular, its length is 250 miles, and its circumference, including the coasts of the bays, is 1,100 miles. The islands which it contains are, La Cleche, Duck islands, Flat islands, Isle la Crosse, Isle Traverse, Manitoualin islands, Whitewood island, Michilimakinac, Nibish island, Prince William's islands, island of Saint Joseph, Sugar island, Thunderbay islands on the south, and a multitude of isles on the north coast.

The channel between lakes Saint Claire and Huron is twenty-

five miles in length, and presents on either side a scene no less fertile than pleasing. It runs almost in a straight direction, lined by lofty forest-trees, interspersed with elegant and extensive meadows, and studded with islands, some of which are of considerable size.

On the south side of lake Huron is the bay of Saguina, whose mouth is eighteen miles in width, whose length is forty-five miles, and into whose bottom two rivers empty themselves. On that which comes from the south the Outaouais have a village, and the soil is reputed to be fertile. Six miles above the bay two considerable rivers present themselves.

The bay of Thunder lies to the eastward of Cabot's head, and is nine miles in width, but of small depth. It is so denominated from the frequent thunder-storms which there take place, generated by vapours issuing from the land in its vicinity. Travellers in passing this part of the lake scarce ever escape the encounter of these awful phenomena. The storm at first appears like a small round cloud, which enlarges as it rapidly approaches, and spreads its gloom over a considerable extent. The vivid lightnings flash their forked fires in every direction, and peals of thunder roar and burst over the head, with a noise more loud and more tremendous in this than in any other part of North America.

Michilimakinac is a small island situated at the north-west angle of lake Huron, towards the entrance of the channel which forms the communication with lake Michigan, in latitude forty-five degrees, forty-eight minutes, thirty-four seconds, and upwards of a thousand miles from Quebec. It is of a round form, irregularly elevated, and of a barren soil; the fort occupies the highest ground, and consists of four wooden block-houses forming the angles, the spaces between them being filled up with cedar pickets. On the shore below the fort there are several store-houses and dwellings. The neighbouring part of the continent, which separates lake Superior from lake Huron, derives its name from the island. In 1671 Father Marquette came thither with a party of Hurons whom he had prevailed on to form a settlement; a fort was constructed, and it afterwards became an important post. It was the place of general assemblage for all the French who went to traffic with the distant nations. It was the asylum of all savages who came to exchange their furs for merchandise. When individuals belonging to tribes at war with each other came thither and met on commercial adventure, their animosities were suspended.

The natives who reside there have no occasion to betake themselves to the fatigues of the chace in order to procure a subsistence. When they are inclined to industry they construct canoes of

the bark of the birch tree, which they sell for from two hundred to three hundred livres each. They catch herrings, white fish, and trout, of from four to five feet in length, some of which weigh seventy pounds. This fish, which is bred in lake Michigan, and is known by the name of Michilimakinac trout, affords a most delicious food. It is extremely rich and delicate, and its fat, resembling the nature of spermaceti, is never cloying to the appetite.

The young men, notwithstanding the abundance of food derived from the quantities of fish, employ a great part of the summer in the chace, for which they travel to the distance of forty or fifty leagues, and return loaded with game. In autumn they depart for the winter chase, which is the most valuable and productive for the furs, and return in the spring with skins of beavers, martins, foxes, and other animals, with bear's grease, and with provision of the flesh of that animal, and of stags, buffaloes, and elks, cured by smoke.

Their tradition concerning the name of this little barren island is curious. They say that Michapous, the chief of spirits, sojourned long in that vicinity. They believed that a mountain on the border of the lake was the place of his abode, and they called it by his name. It was here, say they, that he first instructed man to fabricate nets for taking fish, and where he has collected the greatest quantity of these finny inhabitants of the waters. On the island he left spirits named Imakinakos, and from these aerial possessors it has received the appellation of Michilimakinac. This place came into the possession of the American government in 1796, the period of delivering over all the other forts within its boundaries.

The strait between lakes Huron and Michigan, or the lake of the Illinois, is fifteen leagues in length, and is subject to a flux and reflux which are by no means regular. The currents flow with such rapidity that, when the wind blows, all the nets which are set are drifted away and lost; and sometimes during strong winds the ice is driven against the direction of the currents with much violence.

When the savages in those quarters make a feast of fish, they invoke the spirits of the island, thank them for their bounty, and entreat them to continue their protection to their families. They demand of them to preserve their nets and canoes from the swelling and destructive billows when the lakes are agitated by storms. All who assist in the ceremony lengthen their voices together, which is an act of gratitude. In the observance of this duty of their religion they were formerly very punctual and scrupulous, but the French rallied them so much upon the subject that they became ashamed to practise it openly. They are still,

however, remarked to mutter something which has a reference to the ceremony which their forefathers were accustomed to perform in honour of their insular deities.

LAKE MICHIGAN.

Lake Michigan is 260 miles in length, and 945 in circumference. Its discharge is into Lake Huron, through the strait already mentioned, and it consequently forms a part of the Saint Lawrence. Its breadth is about 70 miles; on the right of its entrance are the Beaver islands, and on the left those of the Pouteouatamis in travelling from south to north. The eastern coast is full of rivers and rivulets near to one another, which have their source in the peninsula that separates Lake Huron from this lake. The principal of these are Marquette's river, the Saint Nicholas, the great river whose source is near the bay of Saguina on Lake Huron, the Raisin, the Barbue, the Maramey, the Black river, on whose borders there is much ginseng, and the river Saint Joseph, which is the most considerable of the whole, and which, through its various sinuosities, may be ascended near a 150 miles. At sixty miles from its mouth the French had a fort and mission near a village of the Pouteouatamis. At nine or ten miles from the Saint Joseph are found the sources of the Theakiki navigable for canoe, and which falls into the river of the Illinois. The western coast of the lake has been but little frequented; towards the north is found the entrance of the bay des Puans, a name given by the French to a savage nation residing there, but it is more generally distinguished by the appellation of the Green bay. Upon its borders stood a French fort, and a mission called Saint François Xavier was established in this vicinity. The bottom of the bay is terminated by a fall of water, beyond which there is a small lake called Winnebago, receiving the Fox river flowing from the west. After making a portage of two miles the traveller may proceed along its course to the Ouisconsin, which unites with the Mississippi.

The waters in Green bay have a flux and reflux, and from the quantity of swampy grounds, and of mud sometimes left exposed to the sun and causing an unpleasant vapour, it originally received the name of *Puante*. This agitation of the waters proceeds, doubtless, from the pressure of winds on the center of the lake. The bay is one hundred and twenty miles in depth, and its width is from twenty-four to thirty miles at its entrance, which, by the islands already noticed is separated into several channels. On the borders of the Malhominis river, whose waters flow into this bay, there is a village composed of natives collected from several tribes, who employ themselves in fishing and cultivating the ground. They are gratified by entertaining pas-

sengers, a quality which among savages is in the highest estimation; for it is the custom of the chiefs to bestow all they possess, if they wish to acquire any pre-eminent degree of consideration. The predominating propensity of these savages is hospitality to strangers, who find here, in every season, all kinds of refreshment which these territories produce, and the principal return which is expected is a commendation of their generosity.

The Sakis, the Pouteouatamis, and Malhominis, here reside; there are also about four cabins or families of sedentary Nadonaicks, whose nation was exterminated by the Iroquois. The Ouenibegons, or Puans, were formerly the possessors of this bay, and of a great extent of the neighbouring country. The tribe was numerous, formidable, and fierce. They violated every principle of nature. No stranger was suffered to enter their territory with impunity. The Malhominis, who dared not to complain of their tyranny, were the only people with whom they had any intercourse. They believed themselves invincible; they declared war on every tribe they could discover, although their arms consisted only of hatchets and of knives formed of stone. They refused to have any commerce with the French. The Outaouais sent to them embassadors, whom they had the ferocity to devour. This instance of atrocity roused with indignation all the neighbouring tribes, who joined with the Outaouais, and receiving arms from the French made frequent irruptions on the Puans. The numbers of the latter became thus rapidly diminished. Civil wars at length arose amongst them; they reproached each other as the cause of their misfortunes, by having perfidiously sacrificed the Outaouaisian deputies, who were bringing them knives and other articles for their use, of whose value they were ignorant. When they found themselves so vigorously attacked they were constrained to unite into one village, where they still amounted to five thousand men. They formed against the Outagamis a party of five hundred warriors, but these perished by a tempest which arose during their passage on the waters. Their enemies compassionated their loss, by saying that the gods ought to be satisfied with such reiterated punishments, and ceased to make war against the remainder of their tribe. The scourges with which they had been afflicted awoke not, however, in their minds, a sense of the turpitude of their conduct, and they pursued with renovated vigour the practice of their former enormities.

The north coast of Lake Huron is intersected by several rivers which flow thither. A chain of islands, called the Manitoualins, extends about a hundred and fifty miles from east to west, opposite to the lower or eastern extremity of which French river disembogues itself. The eastern coast of the lake is studded with

isles, and cut by rivulets and rivers, which descend from several small lakes, the most considerable of which is Toronto, already described under the name of Simcoe; this, it has been remarked, has a communication with Lake Ontario, after a very short carrying-place.

Lake Michigan is separated from Lake Superior by a tongue of land, at least 90 miles in length, and 24 in breadth. The sterility of the soil renders it incapable of affording sustenance to any inhabitants. It may be denominated an island, as it is intersected by a river, communicating with both of these lakes. Saint Joseph is an island of about 75 miles in circumference, situated near the Detour, or passage for vessels, at the northern extremity of Lake Huron. It was made choice of in 1795 as a military post, when Michilimakinac should be no longer in possession of the British government. The fort, which is one of the handsomest of the kind in North America, is situated at the southern extremity, upon a peninsula about fifty feet above the level of the water, and connected with the island by a low isthmus of sand, about 300 yards in breadth.

A company of infantry, and some artillery soldiers, are there stationed Although more than a degree of latitude to the southward of Quebec, the winters are of equal duration and severity as at that place. The soil consists of a black mould of about fifteen inches in depth, upon a stratum of sand, and is not of a very fertile nature.

The falls, or rather cascades, of Saint Mary, are nothing else than a violent current of the waters of Lake Superior, which being interrupted in their descent by a number of large rocks that seem to dispute the passage, form dangerous rapids of three miles in length, precipitating their white and broken waves one upon another in irregular gradations. These cascades are nine miles below the entrance into Lake Superior, and about fifty miles from the Detour already mentioned.

The whole of this distance is occupied by a variety of islands, which divide it into separate channels, and enlarge its width in some situations beyond the extent of sight.

METHOD OF FISHING ON THE RAPIDS.

It is at the bottom of the rapids, and even among their billows which foam with ceaseless impetuosity, that innumerable quantities of excellent fish may be taken from the spring until the winter; the species which is found in the greatest abundance is denominated by the savages, atticameg, or white fish; the Michilimakinac trout and pickerell are likewise caught here. These afford a principal means of subsistence to a number of native tribes.

No small degree of address, as well as strength, is employed by the savages in catching these fish; they stand in an erect attitude in a birch canoe, and even amid the billows they push with force to the bottom of the waters a long pole, at the end of which is fixed a hoop, with a net in the form of a bag, into which the fish is constrained to enter. They watch it with the eye when it glides among the rocks, quickly ensnare it and drag it into the canoe. In conducting this mode of fishing much practice is required, as an inexperienced person may, by the efforts which he is obliged to make, overset the canoe, and inevitably perish.

The convenience of having fish in such abundance attracts to this situation, during summer, several of the neighbouring tribes who are of an erratic disposition, and too indolent for the toils of husbandry. They, therefore, support themselves by the chace in winter, and by fishing in summer. The missionaries stationed at this place embraced the opportunity of instructing them in the duties of christianity, and their residence was distinguished by the appellation of the Mission of the Falls of Saint Mary, which became the center of several others.

The original natives of this place were the *Patrouiting Dach-Irini*, called by the French, *saulteurs*, as the other tribes resorted but occasionally thither. They consisted only of one hundred and fifty men; these, however, afterwards united themselves with three other tribes, who shared in common with them the rights of the territory. Their residence was here established except when they betook themselves to the chace. The natives named Nouquet ranged throughout the southern borders of Lake Superior, which was their natal soil. The Outchibons, with the Maramegs, frequented the northern coasts of the same lake, which they considered as their country. Besides these four tribes there were several others dependent on this mission. The Achiligouans, the Amicours, and the Missasagues, came likewise to fish at the fall of Saint Mary, and to hunt on the isles, and on the territories in the vicinity of Lake Huron.

ACCOUNT OF THE HURONS.

The ancient Hurons, from whom the lake derives its name, dwelt on its eastern confines. They were the first natives in this quarter who hazarded an alliance with the French, from whom they received Jesuit missionaries to instruct them in the christian religion. These Europeans were stiled by the natives, Masters of Iron, and they who remained in those regions taught them to be formidable to their enemies. Even the Iroquois courted the the alliance of the Hurons, who, with too great facility, relied on the pretended friendship and professions of that guileful people,

The Iroquois at length found means to surprise them and to put them in disorder, obliging some to fly to Quebec, and others towards different quarters.

The account of the defeat of the Hurons spread itself among the neighbouring nations, and consternation seized on the greater part of them. From the incursions which the Iroquois made when least expected there was no longer any security. The Nepicirenians fled to the north; the Saulteurs and the Missasagues penetrated to the westward. The Outaouais and some other tribes bordering on Lake Huron retired to the south. The Hurons withdrew to an island where their late disaster only tended to endear the remembrance of their commerce with the French, which was now frustrated. After an attempt, attended with peril, they, however, again found their way to these Europeans. By a second irruption of the Iroquois they were driven from their island, and took refuge among the Pouteouatamis. Part of the Hurons descended to Quebec, and formed a settlement to the northward of that place, of which an account has already been given.

The tribes frequenting the northern territories are savage and erratic, living upon fish and the produce of the chace; often upon the inner bark of trees. A kind of dry grey moss growing on the rocks, called by the Canadians *tripe de rochers*, not unfrequently supplies them with food. They ensnare and shoot beavers, elks, cariboos, and hares of an uncommon size. The lofty grounds abound in blue or huckle-berries, which they collect and dry, to eat in times of scarcity; but as these regions are in general sterile, many of the inhabitants perish by famine.

They whose hunting grounds are towards the north-west are more favoured by the productions of the soil. A species of rice and wild oats grow naturally in the marshes, and supply the deficiency of maize. The forests and plains are filled with bears and cattle, and the smaller islands, lakes, and rivers, abound with beavers. These people frequented the vicinity of Lakes Superior and Nipissing, to traffic with the natives who had intercourse with the French. Their principal commerce was, however, at Hudson's-bay, where they reaped a greater profit. They were pleased to receive iron and kettles in exchange for their worn peltry, of the value of which they were for some time ignorant.

The Nepiciremans and the Amehoeest inhabited the coasts of Lake Nipissing. A great part of them were connected with the tribes of the north, from whom they drew much peltry at an inconsiderable value. They rendered themselves masters of all the other natives in those quarters, until disease made great havock among them, and the Iroquois, insatiable after human blood,

compelled the remainder of their tribe to betake themselves, some to the French settlements, others to Lake Superior, and to the Green bay on Lake Michigan.

The nation of the Otter inhabited the rocky caverns on Lake Huron, where they were sheltered by a labyrinth of islands and of capes. They subsisted on Indian corn, on fish, and on the produce of the chace. They were simple, but courageous, and had frequent intercourse with the nations of the north. The Missasagues, or Estiaghics, are situated on the same lake, on a river generally called by the latter name They, as well as the Saulteurs of Saint Mary, spread themselves along the borders of Lake Huron, where they procure the bark of trees to form canoes and to construct their huts. The waters are so transparent that fish can be seen at the depth of thirty feet. Whilst the women and children are collecting berries, the men are occupied in darting sturgeon. When their grain is almost ripe they return home. On the approach of winter they resume their stations near the lake for the purpose of the chace, and forsake it in the spring, to plant their Indian corn, and to fish at the falls.

Such are the occupations of these people, who, if they were acquainted with economy might live in abundance, which but a small portion of labour is here required to secure. But they are so habituated to gluttony and waste that they take no thought for their subsistence on the following day. There are thus several who perish from hunger. They seldom reserve any provisions, and if a part happen to be left, it is from their being incapable of consuming the whole. When a stranger arrives among them they will offer him their last morsel of food, to impress him with a persuasion that they are not in indigence. The forefathers of these natives were brave, but they have been so long in the enjoyment of indolence and tranquillity that they have degenerated in valour, and make war only on the beasts of the forest, and the inhabitants of the water.

The Hurons, more prudent, look forward to the future and support their families. As they are in general sober it is seldom they are subject to distress. The tribe is artful, political, proud, and of greater extent of capacity than most of the other natives. They are liberal, grave, decent in discourse, in which they express themselves with accuracy, insinuating, and not subject to be duped in their dealings.

The Outaouis have endeavoured to assume the manners and maxims of this people. They were formerly extremely rude, but by intercourse with the Hurons they have become more intelligent. They imitated their valour, and made themselves for-

midable to all the nations with whom they were at enmity, and respected by those with whom they were in alliance.

The factory of the company of merchants of Montreal is situated at the foot of the cascades of Saint Mary on the north side, and consists of store-houses, a saw-mill, and a bateaux-yard. The saw-mill supplies with plank, boards, and spars, all the posts on Lake Superior, and particularly Pine point, which is nine miles from thence, has a dock-yard for constructing vessels, and is the residence of a regular master-builder with several artificers. At the factory there is a good canal, with a lock at its lower entrance and a causeway for dragging up the bateaux and canoes. The vessels of Lake Superior approach close to the head of the canal where there is a wharf; those of Lake Huron to the lower end of the cascades. These rapids are much shorter on the north than on the south side, a circumstance occasioned by the interposition of small islands. The company has lately caused a good road to be made, along which their merchandise is transported on wheeled carriages from the lower part of the cascades to the deptôs. The houses are here constructed of square timber clap-boarded, and have a neat appearance.

On the north side of the rapids, about six families, consisting of Americans and domiciliated Indians are established. The taxes imposed by the government of the United States upon all kinds of merchandise are unfavourable to the commerce of its subjects with the Indians in these regions.

LAKE SUPERIOR.

Lake Superior, to which was formerly given the name of Tracey, and likewise that of Condé, composes a collection of fresh waters of the first magnitude in the known world. Although several posts in its vicinity were long occupied by French traders, and by missionaries, yet only a small portion of geographical information was obtained through their means. The length of this lake is four hundred miles, and its circumference one thousand five hundred and twenty miles. It is subjected to frequent storms, and a swell, similar to that of the tide of the ocean rolls in upon its coasts The navigation is here dangerous when the wind blows with strength, and travellers for this reason keep near to the north shore, which, being bordered throughout by barren rocks of considerable elevation, nature has provided at no great distances from each other a variety of small harbours and places of safe retreat.

Pine point and Point au Foin form the entrance into the lake. White-fish point is on the south shore, opposite to which on the north coast, and at the distance of fifteen miles across, there is a mine of copper formerly worked by the French. That metal is

here found in native purity, uncontaminated by mixture with any extraneous substances.

The cape, about nine miles from hence, is in latitude forty-six degrees, thirty-two minutes, fifty-eight seconds, and in longitude eighty-four degrees nineteen minutes, fifty-seven seconds. The traveller, on passing White-fish point, is agreeably astonished by the development of a vast and unbounded expanse of crystalline waters. A great evaporation must here necessarily take place, and in summer this is dissolved in the dry and warm atmosphere; except during the prevalence of an easterly wind, which, by the coolness and humidity it carries with it, condenses the vapour into fogs, and collects it into torrents of rain. The waters of this lake appear to be subject, at particular periods, to a great increase, succeeded by a gradual diminution; and along the rocks of the eastern coast lines are observable, which indicate the rise and fall. The greatest distance between these horizontal marks impressed by the waters, is not more than five or six feet. The greater or less quantities of snows, which in winter cover to a considerable depth immeasurable regions, and which, on their dissolution, flow into this pellucid ocean, may probably be productive of this phenomenon. The soil in the vicinity of the eastern shore is rocky and shallow, yielding only stunted trees, brambles, strawberries, raspberries, and other fruits of humble growth, the feeble tribute of sterility. The bears find in them a grateful food, and are attracted thither. Moose and fallow deer also range along these coasts.

The islands in this lake are *isle aux Erables*, isle of Michipicoton, Carribou island, *isles ance à Bouteille*, Peek island, *Milles isles*, *isle Royale*, isles of the twelve Apostles, and Montreal island on the south-west coast. The most remarkable bays are Michipicoton bay, Black bay, Thunder bay, Fond du Lac or West bay, Ance de Chagoumegon, whose point is in latitude forty-seven degrees, two minutes, twenty seconds, and longitude ninety-one degrees, four minutes; Quicounau bay, formed by a large peninsula, situated on the south, and bay *des isles au pais plat*.

The river Michipicoton communicates with the territory of the Hudson's bay company, and the society of merchants at Montreal, who trade to the north-west regions, have considerable posts established on it. A fort, consisting of a stockaded square, with a dwelling-house and two small store-houses, are erected at the mouth of the larger Peek, there being two rivers of that name, which fall into the lake on the northern coast. The rapids on this river are numerous, but the carrying-places are in general short.

Beyond Otter-Head, in latitude forty-eight, four, six; longi-

tude, eighty-five, fifty-two, twenty-nine; at the bottom of a bay formed by that point, a waterfall of seventy feet in height, presents itself, and contributes by its sound, splendour, and movements, to enliven the stillness and solitude which prevail in these distant and desolate regions.

The river Nepigon, or Lemipisake, flows into the wide and extensive bay of the isles *au pais plat*, and has a near communication with Hudson's bay. It has several posts established on its borders; it forms the discharge of Lake Alimipigon, and, at its north-east source, travellers may arrive, by means of a portage, at the Perray, which runs into Hudson's bay.

The commerce of the Hudson's bay company possessing many advantages over that which is conducted from Canada by means of the lakes, might be rendered much more productive than it is at present. The articles which are exchanged with the natives for their furs, can be afforded at a much cheaper rate through the route by the bay, than by the tedious, difficult, and circuitous way of the rivers and lakes of Canada; and the Indians, for this reason, give a preference to the commerce of the former.

A place named the *Grande Portage* is situated on a river at the western side of the lake, in a bay which forms a crescent, and whose borders are cleared and enclosed. It is now in possession of the government of the United States, and was until lately a place of great resort for the trading companies of Montreal, as the principal depôt for these regions, was here established. The defence, placed under a hill of upwards of four hundred feet in elevation, surmounted by a congeries of others, consists of a large picketed fort, with three gates, over which are two guard-houses. The ranges of buildings for stores and dwelling-houses, which were occupied for the accommodation of the different persons engaged in the north-west trade, are very extensive. The canoe-yard, for constructing canoes used for penetrating into the interior parts of the country, is upon a great scale, seventy canoes per annum having been contracted for. The number of persons encamped in tents and in huts, on the outside of the fort, was, at certain periods, very great, and tended to excite surprise that so considerable an assemblage of men, under no military restraint, should be retained in obedience, and in a state of tolerable regularity, so far beyond the limits of all civil jurisdiction. The fur trade was for some time conducted by two rival associations, who are now united. The establishment of the new company was about a quarter of a mile from that of the old, and consisted of a fort, picketed, and of buildings on the same plan as those of the latter, but upon a more circumscribed scale.

Fort Charlotte is placed upon the river *la Tourte*, which has a communication with the interior country; it consists of a

stockaded quadrangle, with buildings and stores within it. The first carrying-place, in ascending that communication, is called the *Perdrix*, about three hundred and eighty yards in length; at the uppermost extremity, an elegant and romantic waterfall appears, throwing, like a moving white curtain, from the summit of a cliff of sixty feet in perpendicular altitude, revolving groups of resplendent foam.

The river Kamanastigua, which discharges its waters into Thunder bay, is about two hundred yards in width, and from ten to twelve feet in depth in the southern branch, there being three channels. The shore for about half a mile from the lake is low and swampy, after which it rises, and presents a soil of the richest quality. The first branch is found three miles up the river. The middle branch is about half a mile in length, and very narrow; the third is the largest, and about half a mile from the lake. Upon this branch the company of merchants of Montreal have established their new posts. A square of five hundred and twenty feet is inclosed with lofty pickets, within which are structures uniformly arranged, fitted for every purpose and accommodation.

Half a mile above this post there is the site of an old fort, which, during the French government, was the principal commercial depôt in this remote region. The first rapid is six miles up the river, the first carrying-place is twenty miles. The mouth of this river is sheltered by a rocky island, and the entrance is perfectly secure. The bar has seven feet of water over it, and ten or twelve feet both within and without, and the bay itself is protected by islands.

Lake Superior receives into its bosom near forty rivers, some of which are of considerable magnitude. It is well stored with a variety of fish, the largest and best of which are the trout, the white fish, and the sturgeon, of a quality superior to that caught in the lower parts of the Saint Lawrence. The waters are more pure and pellucid than those of any other lake upon this globe, and the fish, as well as the rocks, can be distinctly seen at a depth incredible to persons who have never visited those regions. The density of the medium on which the vessel moves, appears scarcely to exceed that of the atmosphere, and the traveller becomes impressed with awe at the novelty of his situation. The southern coast is in many places flat, and the soil is of a sandy and barren nature.

Although the course of the Saint Lawrence is usually computed at no more than about two thousand five hundred miles, yet the distance of country through which a river flows is by no means a just criterion of its grandeur; and the rivers Amazon and la Plata, from the greater length of their courses, have been

allowed, in the order of magnitude, to usurp a preference to the former, which, notwithstanding, is the most navigable upon earth. Ships of considerable size, which every year arrive from Great Britain, ascend with ease this river as far as Montreal, a distance of five hundred miles from the sea. In advancing higher up its course, instead of diminishing, like almost all other rivers, in width as well as depth, the traveller is impressed with astonishment at its majesty, and, in many places, its apparently unbounded extension. At the distance of two thousand miles from its mouth, vessels of the first class might be constructed and navigated, a property hitherto undiscovered in any other flood of fresh waters, and which, therefore, has a claim to precedence as the largest and most stupendous in this world.

REMARKS ON THE COMMERCE OF CANADA.

The original source of all the misfortunes, and of all the obstacles to the advancement and prosperity of the provinces, (observes Mr. Heriot) which were formerly distinguished by the appellation of New France, was the report, that, at a very early period, spread itself over the parent kingdom, that no mines were to be found in that part of North America. Little attention was therefore bestowed on the advantages which might have been derived from the colony, by encouraging and augmenting its commerce. Population made but a slow progress, and the inducement presented to the inhabitants of France to remove thither was not very alluring. The sole objects for commercial enterprise, which Canada and Acadia at that time afforded, were the fisheries and the fur trade. Had it been the fortune of these countries to have attracted in a greater degree the attention of the court to their intrinsic value and importance, the settlements would have advanced with greater rapidity, and reciprocal advantages to the parent state and to the colony, would have arisen.

But the splendour of the precious metals which were imported from Mexico and Peru, had so dazzled the eyes of all the inhabitants of Europe, that a territory which produced not these, was considered as undeserving of attention. New France fell, therefore, into disrepute, before a knowledge of its soil, and of the species of production of which it was capable, could be ascertained. Even they, who were convinced that considerable advantages might be drawn from it, took no active measures towards promoting the means of their accomplishment. Much time was allowed to elapse, before the choice of a situation was made; the land was often cleared, without a previous examination of the qualities of its soil. It was planted with grain, buildings were erected, and, after much labour had thus been lavished on it, the colonist frequently abandoned it, and went to settle

elsewhere. This spirit of inconstancy contributed to the loss of Acadia to France, and operated as an insuperable barrier to the acquisition of any advantage from that extensive peninsula.

The commerce of Canada was long confined to the fisheries and to the fur trade. The cod-fishery was carried on at the Great Bank, and on the coast of Newfoundland, some time before the river Saint Lawrence was explored. The harbour and bay of Placentia were occupied by the French.

The province of Acadia, now called Nova Scotia, was originally shared among different individuals, no one of whom enriched himself, whilst the English were conducting upon the coast an extensive and [illegible] fishery. The settlements which these proprietors made [illegible] state of solidity, and formed upon no regular plan, were at length abandoned, little more improved than when they were first entered on, and fallen into such disrepute, that the country did not regain its character until the moment when it became lost to France. When this region was first discovered, it abounded with wild animals of great variety of species. A handful of Frenchmen found means to sweep these extensive forests of their four-footed inhabitants, and in less than an age to cause them totally to disappear. Some there were, whose species became entirely extinguished. Orignals and elks were killed for no other design but that of amusement, and of exercising address in the chace. The authority of government was not interposed to remedy a disorder so destructive; but from the avarice of individuals who applied themselves only to this commerce, a yet greater evil was produced.

The emigrants who arrived from France were in general in a state of wretchedness and poverty, and were desirous of re-appearing in their native country in a better condition. In the commencement of the settlement there was little impediment to the acquisition of wealth by the produce of the chace. The Indians were yet ignorant of the treasures which their native woods afforded, and became acquainted with their value, only from the avidity with which the furs were snatched from their hands. In exchange for articles of no value whatever, prodigious quantities were acquired from them. When they had even become more acquainted with the importance of this species of commerce, and more attentive to their own interests, it was still for a long time easy to satisfy them at a small expence. With some degree of prudence, therefore, it would not have been difficult to have continued this traffic upon an advantageous footing. Considerable fortunes were made with rapidity; but they were almost as quickly dissipated as they had been acquired; like those moving hills which, in the sandy deserts of Asia or of Africa, are drifted and deposited by the whirlwinds, and which, possessing no consistency

or solidity, are by the same cause again as suddenly dispersed.

Nothing was more common in New France, than to behold individuals, protracting in wretchedness and misery a languishing old age, after having through folly lost the opportunities which were afforded them of procuring an honourable subsistence. The condition of these people, unworthy of the fortunes which it was once in their power to have gained, would by no means have become a subject of public regret, had not ill effects thence arisen to the colony, which was soon reduced to the mortification of finding almost totally exhausted, or diverted into other channels, a source of wealth which might have continued to flow into its bosom. The origin of its ruin was generated from its too great abundance.

By the immense accumulation of beaver skins, which always constituted a principal part of this commerce, so great a quantity was found in the magazines, that there was no longer any demand for them; whence it arose, that the merchants were unwilling to receive any more. The adventurers, therefore, who in Canada were stiled *Coureurs de Bois*, embraced the only opportunity which was offered for disposing of them, by carrying them to the English; and many of these people established themselves in the province of New York. The attempts made to prevent those desertions, were not attended with success; on the contrary, they whom interest had led into the territories of the English, were there retained by the dread of punishment, should they return to their country; and others, whose inclination disposed them to enjoy the freedom and libertinism of an erratic mode of life, remained among the savages, from whom they could afterwards be distinguished, only by their exceeding them in vice and immorality. To recal these fugitives, recourse was at length had to the publication of amnesties, and even this measure was long of little avail; by prudence and perseverance, it at length produced in some degree the intended effect.

Another mode yet more efficacious was employed, that of granting to persons, on whose fidelity a reliance could be placed, licences to trade in the territories of the Indians, and of prohibiting all other inhabitants from leaving the colony. The nature of these licences, and the conditions on which they were bestowed, has already been described in another work. From this practice it arose, that a great proportion of the young men were continually wandering throughout the distant forests; and although they committed not, at least so openly, the disorders which had brought such discredit on this occupation, yet they failed not to contract a habit of libertinism, of which they could never wholly

divest themselves. They there lost all relish for industry; they exhausted their strength; they became impatient of all restraint; and when no longer able to undergo the fatigue of these voyages, which happened at an early period of life, because their exertions were excessive, they became destitute of all resource, and unfit for the functions of society. Hence proceeded the cause that agriculture was long neglected, that immense tracts of fertile lands remained uncultivated, and that the progress of population was retarded.

It was repeatedly proposed to abolish these licences, so prejudicial to the advancement of improvement, in such a manner as that the commerce might not suffer, and with a view of rendering it even more flourishing. This design was to be effected by the formation of small settlements, in situations where it would be convenient for the natives to assemble at certain seasons of the year. By this means it was conceived, that these vast countries would become insensibly peopled, and that the savages, attracted by the assistance and kindness which they would experience from the French, would perhaps abandon their erratic mode of life, would thereby be exposed to less misery, would multiply instead of diminish in numbers, and would form such an attachment to these Europeans, as perhaps would induce them to become fellow-subjects.

The several settlements of Lorette, of the sault Saint Louis, and others of the Algonquins and of the domiciliated Abinaquis, exhibited examples of the probable success of that undertaking. It was, however, never put in execution, and the natives have rapidly decreased in numbers. An extended chain of settlements, at convenient distances from each other, might have been made; and the colonies of Canada and Louisiana, being thus connected, would have been enabled to have afforded to each other mutual assistance. By means like these, the English, in less than a century and a half, peopled more than fifteen hundred miles of territory, and thus created a power on this continent not less formidable than dreaded by the French.

Canada has for many years carried on with the islands in the gulph of Mexico, a commerce in flour, planks, and other wood adapted for buildings. As there is not, perhaps, another country in the world which produces a greater variety of woods, some of which are excellent in their kind, considerable advantages are derived from thence.

Nothing so much contributed to the languishing state in which the trade of this colony was for some time retained, as the frequent alterations which took place in the medium of exchange. The company of the West Indies, to whom was conceded the do-

main of the French islands, was permitted to circulate there a small coin, whose number was not to exceed the value of a hundred thousand franks, and whose use, in any other country, was prohibited But, difficulties arising from the want of specie, the council published a decree, by which it was ordained, that this coin, and all other money which was in circulation in France, should not only be used in the islands, but also in the provinces on the continent, on augmenting the value one-fourth. The decree enjoined, that all notes of hand, accounts, purchases, and payments, should be made by every person without exception, at the rate of exchange thus settled. It had likewise a retrospective operation, and stated, that all stipulations for contracts, notes, debts, rents, and leases, should be valued in money, according to that currency.

This regulation tended, in its execution, to occasion many difficulties. The intendant of Canada found at that period inexpressible embarrassment, not only in the payment of the troops, but for all other expences of government in the colony. The funds remitted for this purpose from France, arrived generally too late; and it was necessary, on the first of January, to pay the officers and soldiers, and to satisfy other charges not less indispensable. To obviate the most urgent occasions, the intendant, with the concurrence of the council, issued notes instead of money, observing always the proportional augmentation in the value of the coin. A *procès verbal* was accordingly framed, and by virtue of an ordinance of the governor-general and intendant, there was stamped on each piece of this paper-money, which was a card, its value, the signature of the treasurer, an impression of the arms of France, and, on sealing-wax, those of the Governor and Intendant. They were afterwards imprinted in France, with the same impressions as the current money of the kingdom; and it was decreed, that, before the arrival in the colony of vessels from France, a particular mark should be added, to prevent the introduction of counterfeits.

This species of money did not long remain in circulation, and cards were again resorted to, on which new impressions were engraved. Those of the value of four livres and upwards, were signed by the intendant, who was satisfied with distinguishing the others by a particular mark. Those which were six livres and upwards, the Governor-general formerly likewise signed. In the beginning of autumn, all the cards were brought to the treasurer, who gave for their value bills of exchange on the treasurer-general of the marine, or on his deputy at Rochefort, on account of the expences of the ensuing year. Such cards as were spoiled were not again used in circulation, and were burnt agreeably to a *procès verbal* for that purpose.

Whilst the bills of exchange continued to be faithfully paid, the cards were preferred to money; but when that punctuality was discontinued, they were no longer brought to the treasurer, and the intendant had much fruitless trouble in endeavouring to recal those which he had issued. His successors, in order to defray the necessary expences of the government, were obliged to issue new cards every year, by which means they become so multiplied, that their value was annihilated, and no person would receive them in payment. Commerce, by this injudicious system of finance, was entirely deranged; and the inconvenience rose to such a height, that, in 1713, the inhabitants proposed to lose one-half, provided the government would pay them the other in money. This proposal was, in the following year, agreed to, but the orders given in consequence were not carried into compleat execution until four years afterwards. A declaration, abolishing the paper money, was then published, and the expences of the colony were again paid in cash. The augmentation of one-fourth was at the same time abolished, experience having suggested, that the increase of value in money in a colony is not an effectual means of retaining it there; and that it cannot remain long in circulation, unless the articles imported from the parent state be repaid in produce.

The commerce of the colony was, in 1706, carried on with a fund of six hundred and fifty thousand livres, which, for several years afterwards, did not much augment. This sum, distributed among thirty thousand inhabitants, could not place them in affluent circumstances, nor afford them the means of purchasing the merchandise of France. The greatest part of them were, therefore, almost in a state of nature; particularly they whose residence was in the remote settlements. Even the surplus of their produce and stock they were unable to sell to the inhabitants of towns, because, in order to subsist, the latter were necessitated to cultivate farms of their own.

When the King withdrew Canada from the hands of the company of the Indies, he for some time expended on that province much larger portions of money than he did at any future period, and the colony then remitted, in beaver skins, to the value of a million of livres, a greater quantity than was afterwards exported. But articles were every year imported from France, amounting to a much greater value than could be paid, and the inhabitants acted like inconsiderate individuals, whose expences far exceed their income.

Thus fell the credit of the colony; and, in falling, it occasioned the ruin of commerce, which, in 1706, consisted only of furs of an inferior quality. The merchants were, notwithstanding, emulous of purchasing them; this circumstance tended

to accelerate their overthrow, because they frequently paid to the savages a higher price than these articles were sold for in France.

When the French began their settlements in Canada, the country exhibited one vast and unbounded forest, and property was granted in extensive lots, called *Seigneuries*, stretching along either coast of the Saint Lawrence for a distance of ninety miles below Quebec, and thirty miles above Montreal, comprehending a space of three hundred miles in length.

The seigneuries each contain from one hundred to five hundred square miles, and are parcelled out into small tracts on a freehold lease to the inhabitants, as the persons to whom they were granted had not the means of cultivating them. These consisted of officers of the army, of gentlemen, and of communities, who were not in a state to employ labourers and workmen. The portion to each inhabitant was of three acres in breadth, and from seventy to eighty in depth, commencing on the banks of the river, and running back into the woods, thus forming an entire and regular lot of land.

To the proprietors of *seigneuries* some powers, as well as considerable profits, are attached. They are by their grants authorized to hold courts, and sit as judges in what is termed *haute* and *basse justice*, which includes all crimes committed within their jurisdiction, treasons and murder excepted. Few, however, exercised this privilege except the ecclesiastical seigneurs of Montreal, whose right of jurisdiction the king of France purchased from them, giving them in return his *droit de change*. Some of these seigneurs have a right of villain service from their tenants.

At every transfer, or mutation of proprietor, the new purchaser is bound to pay a sum equal to a fifth part of the purchase-money to the seigneur, or to the king; but if this fine be paid immediately only one-third of the fifth is demanded. This constituted a principal part of the king's revenues in the province. When an estate falls by inheritance to a new possessor he is by law exempted from the fine.

The income of a seigneur is derived from the yearly rent of his lands, from *lots et vents*, or a fine on the disposal of property held under him, and from grist-mills, to whose profits he has an exclusive right. The rent paid by each tenant is inconsiderable; but they who have many inhabitants on their estates enjoy a tolerably handsome revenue, each person paying in money, grain, or other produce, from five to twelve livres *per annum*. In the event of a sale of any of the lots of his *seigneurie*, a proprietor may claim a preference of re-purchasing it, which is seldom exercised but with a view to prevent frauds in the dis-

posal of the property. He may also, whenever he finds it necessary, cut down timber for the purpose of building mills and making roads; tythes of all the fisheries on his domain likewise belong to him.

Possessed of these advantages *seigneurs* might in time attain to a state of comparative affluence were their estates allowed to remain entire. But, by the practice of divisions among the different children of a family, they become, in a few generations, reduced. The most ample share, which retains the name of *seigneurie*, is the portion of the eldest son; the other partitions are denominated *feofs*. These are, in the next generation, again subdivided, and thus, in the course of a few descents, a seigneur is possessed of little more than his title. This is the condition of most of those estates that have passed to the third or fourth generation.

The inhabitants in like manner make divisions of their small tracts of land, and a house will sometimes belong to several proprietors. It is from these causes that they are in a great measure retained in a state of poverty, that a barrier to industry and emulation is interposed, and that a spirit of litigation is excited.

There are in Canada upwards of an hundred seigneuries, of which that at Montreal, belonging to the seminary of Saint Sulpicius is the richest and most productive. The next in value and profit is the territory of the Jesuits. The members of that society who resided at Quebec were, like the priest of Montreal, only agents for the head of their community. But since the expulsion of their order from France, and the seizure by the catholic sovereigns of Europe of all the lands of that society within their dominions, the Jesuits in Canada held their *seigneurie* in their own right.

Some of the domiciliated savages hold also in the province lands in the right of seigneurs.

Upon a representation of the narrow circumstances to which many of the *noblesse* and gentlemen of the colony were reduced, not only by the causes already assigned, but by others equally powerful, Louis the Fourteenth was induced to permit persons of that description to carry on commerce by sea or land without being subjected to any enquiry on this account, or to an imputation of their having derogated from their rank in society.

To no *seigneurie* is the right of patronage to the church attached; it was upon the advancement of the pretensions of some seigneurs, founded on their having built parochial churches, that the king in 1685 pronounced in council that this right should belong to the bishop, he being the most capable of judging concerning the qualifications of persons who were to serve, and the

incomes of the curacies also being paid from the tythes, which belonged to him alone. The right of patronage was at the same time declared not to be reputed an honour.

The salaries allotted to the officers of the civil departments in the French colonial governments were extremely moderate and inadequate to support their respective situations. In 1758 that of the Marquis de Vaudreuil, governor and lieutenant general of Canada, amounted to no more than 272*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* sterling, out of which he was to cloath, maintain, and pay a guard for himself, consisting of two serjeants and twenty-five soldiers, furnishing them with firing in winter, and with other necessary articles. The pay of the whole officers of justice and police was 514*l.* 11*s.* sterling, and the total sum appropriated for the pay of the established officers composing the various branches of the civil power exceeded not 3809*l.* 8*s* sterling.

At the period when this arrangement of pay was settled, these sums might, perhaps have been considered as sufficiently ample. To increase the salaries of the various officers of a government, when an augmentation of the value of the articles of life disproportionate to their means shall render it expedient, is a measure of ministerial policy upon the whole not unprofitable to a state. A partial adherence to ancient regulations, with a view of concealing the public expenditure, is a system of economy founded in error. This has in many instances, but particularly with regard to the country of which we are speaking, been productive of a torrent of general peculation, whose destructive course drew along with it embarrassments which it required the strongest efforts of political wisdom to remedy and to overcome.

The paper money in Canada amounted in 1754 to so large a sum that the government was compelled to remit to a future period the payment of it. The quantity every day acquired an increased accumulation, and this money fell at length into total disrepute. Merchandise rose in proportion as the medium of exchange became decried. The officers of government and the troops were the principal consumers, and the evil of scarcity and the discredit of the paper money were chiefly derived from that cause. In 1759 the minister was obliged wholly to suspend payment of the bills of exchange, whose amount was enormous. Considerable sums were, at the conclusion of the war, due by the government of France to the Canadians, and Great Britain, whose subjects they were become, obtained for them an indemnity of 112,000l. in bonds and of 24,000l. sterling in money. They therefore received in payment at the rate of fifty-five per cent. upon their bills of exchange, and thirty-four per cent. on account of their ordonnances or paper money.

The derangement and default which we have stated arose like-

wise in a great degree from the mal-administration of finance, and from a total dereliction of principle in those to whom that department was committed.

From the foregoing facts it may easily be conceived that when the English took possession of Canada they found its inhabitants to have made but little progress in commerce or in agriculture. The long continuance of warfare might have tended to depress the former, but the latter had never attained to any stage of improvement.

One article of commerce the Canadians had, by their own imprudence rendered altogether unprofitable. Ginseng was first discovered in the woods of Canada in 1718. It was from that country exported to Canton, where its quality was pronounced to be equal to that of the ginseng procured in Corea or in Tartary, and a pound of this plant, which before sold in Quebec for twentypence, became, when its value was once ascertained, worth one pound and tenpence sterling. The export of this article alone is said to have amounted in 1752 to twenty thousand pounds sterling. But the Canadians, eager suddenly to enrich themselves, reaped this plant in May when it should not have been gathered until September, and dried it in ovens when its moisture should have been gradually evaporated in the shade. This fatal mistake arising from cupidity, and in some measure from ignorance, ruined the sale of their ginseng among the only people upon earth who are partial to its use, and at an early period cut off from the colony a new branch of trade, which, under proper regulations, might have been essentially productive.

IMPORTS OF CANADA.

The imports of Canada, during seven years of its most flourishing trade, previous to the conquest of the country, amounted annually to about 160,000*l*., and sometimes to 240,000*l*. sterling. The exports seldom exceeded 80,000*l*. sterling, and frequently less than that sum. This deficiency was in a considerable degree supplied every year by the French government, which expended large sums in building ships, and on the fortifications, to which was added the payment of the troops, besides other disbursements. These, it has already been noticed, were settled by bills drawn on the treasury in France, and whilst they were punctually paid sufficiently supplied the balance.

The traders who emigrated thither from Great Britain found, for the first two or three years after the reduction of the country, a considerable advantage in the great quantities of furs then in the colony, in bills drawn by those inhabitants who were determined to remain under the British government, and who had money in France, in bills drawn on the paymaster-general in

London, for the subsistence of five or six regiments, and in what were termed *Canada bills*. But these resources became in a great degree exhausted, and commerce fell into a state of progressive languishment and decline.

The inhabitants for upwards of a century had been accustomed to manufacture in their own families, druggets, coarse linens, stockings, and worsted caps knitted with wires. For the men and for themselves to wear during the summer months, the women fabricated hats and bonnets of straw. Few European articles were at that time required by this people, who observed in their modes of living the most rigid frugality. The wool produced from the breed of sheep is, from the coldness of the climate, of a nature too coarse to enter into the composition of fine cloths. The lint, tobacco, and hemp raised by the inhabitants, are principally designed for the use of their families. Until the arrival in the colony of some farmers from Great Britain they were but little acquainted with the science of agriculture. No sooner were the fields become exhausted than the inhabitants betook themselves to clear and to cultivate new lands; they were ignorant of the application of manure and of the amelioration which its introduction can effect in the productive quality of soils. Their natural aversion to industry, their propensity to ease, and their disposition to vanity, induced a great part of the colonists to raise a larger proportion of horses than of cattle; the labour of the latter being found in tillage equally useful with that of the former, the sources of provision were thus unnecessarily stinted.

EXPORTS OF CANADA.

The quantity of produce exported in 1769 amounted in value to 163,105l. sterling, and was shipped in seventy vessels belonging to Great Britain and to her subjects in the different colonies in North America. Rum, coffee, brown sugar, and melasses were brought thither from the West Indies; Spain, Italy, and Portugal supplied brandy, wines, oils, and salt, in return for grain. Cloths, linens, muslins, silks, household furniture, teas, refined sugars, tools, glass, utensils, colours, hard and crockery-ware, were supplied by England.

Not more than twelve small vessels were at this period engaged in the fisheries on the river Saint Lawrence, and about six were sent to the West Indies. The construction of vessels was for a long time laid aside. This might in some degree be attributed to the scarcity of artificers, and to the high wages which were consequently demanded.

In the course of two or three years after the period we have now mentioned the de' ts due to the colony were paid, and paper

money entirely disappeared. The commerce of Canada remained long in a state of fluctuation, caused by the increase or decrease of demand in European countries for the productions which it supplied. It seems, however, in a course of ten years to have considerably augmented, and the number of vessels employed in 1775 was ninety-seven, containing ten thousand eight hundred and forty-one tons. At the end of ten years more the trade appears not to have been so extensive, fifty-seven ships only having been then entered at the port of Quebec. But the lapse of another period of ten years had contributed, in a great degree, to enlarge it; and in 1795 not less than a hundred and twenty-eight vessels, amounting to nineteen thousand nine hundred and fifty-three tons, navigated by one thousand and sixty-seven men, arrived in the Saint Lawrence. This increase may be attributed to the scarcity of grain which at that period prevailed in Great Britain, and in most of the other countries of Europe. Three hundred and ninety-five thousand bushels of wheat, eighteen thousand barrels of flour, and twenty thousand cwts. of biscuit were that year exported from Canada.

The advanced prices which were then given for wheat and other grain tended to enrich the inhabitants, and had an influence in augmenting the value of all the articles of life. Many of the Canadians, even at a distance from the capital, began from that period to lay aside their ancient costume, and to acquire a relish for the manufactures of Europe. This revolution in dress has not a little contributed to the encouragement of commerce.

The construction of vessels at Quebec had begun in the course of the foregoing year to be carried on with spirit and success, by a company of London merchants, who sent to Canada an agent for conducting that branch. Several builders have since established themselves there, and from the demand which, in consequence of the war, has prevailed for vessels, they have reaped considerable profits.

A large exportation of grain took place in 1799 and the three following years. The quantity in 1802 was one million and ten thousand bushels of wheat, thirty-eight thousand barrels of flour, and thirty-two thousand cwts. of biscuit. The number of vessels engaged in the export of these and other productions of the colony was two hundred and eleven; the quantity of tonnage was near thirty-six thousand, and the number of sailors was one thousand eight hundred and fifty.

The exports from Canada consist of wheat and other grain, flax-seed, beef and pork, butter and lard, soap and candles, grease and tallow, balsam, ale, porter, essence of spruce, salmon dry and pickled, fish-oil, timber, plank, boards, hemp, horses,

cattle, sheep, pot and pearl-ashes, utensils of cast iron, furs of various descriptions, castoreum and ginseng. These articles amounted in value, in the year mentioned above, to five hundred and sixty-three thousand four hundred pounds sterling.

The imports were, wine of various kinds, rum, sugar, melasses, coffee, tobacco, salt, coals, and different articles of the manufacture of Great Britain.

The colonial revenues in that year amounted to thirty-one thousand two hundred pounds, and were derived from imposts, duties, *lots et vents*, and rents of property belonging to the king. The expenditures were forty-three thousand two hundred pounds.

The forges of Three Rivers and Battiscan not only supply the colony with utensils and stoves of cast iron, but likewise afford a quantity of those articles for exportation. At the former of these manufactories hammered iron of the best quality is made.

The fur trade had, for a long period after the settlement of the English in Canada been conducted by a variety of individuals, and the interruption which it experienced during the war between Great Britain and her colonies, cut off for a time the profits which formerly flowed into the province from that source.

At length, about the year 1784, a gentleman of Montreal, whose mind was active and enterprising, formed an association of several merchants of that place for the purpose of pushing this branch of commerce to a greater extension than it had ever before acquired. The associates stiled themselve the Company of the North-west, as it is from that quarter that the objects of their pursuit are principally derived, and for which the vast and immeasurable tracts of territory, yet unexplored by Europeans, seemed to present a productive and inexhaustible field. Several individuals actuated by a spirit of adventure and discovery, as well as by the hope of profit, traversed an immense tract of wilds to the westward and towards the north. One gentleman, upwards of twelve years ago, particularly distinguished himself as the first who ever travelled across the continent of America, in these high latitudes, to the shores of the Pacific Ocean; an undertaking whose accomplishment demanded the greatest stretch of resolution, prudence, firmness, and exertion. More than one attempt has since been made to perform the same journey, but without success.

Although, previous to the year 1790, immense quantities of furs were every year exported from Canada, yet the profits were not at that time by any means equal to those afterwards arising from this branch of commerce. A great proportion of peltry,

particularly that of beaver, enters into the composition of some manufactures; but the price of furs is in a great measure influenced by fashion. By this standard, which constitutes the increase or decrease of demand, the market is principally regulated. The consumption of peltry for dress has, fortunately for the fur merchants, prevailed for many years past, and several have from this cause acquired independent fortunes.

The company trading to the north-west sends every year, to the posts on Lake Superior, about fifty canoes loaded with merchandise. These are dispatched about the beginning of May, from La Chine, a distance of nine miles above Montreal. The canoes are formed of the bark of the birch-tree, and closely lined with thin ribs made of a tough wood. The seams are sewed with radical fibres, called watape, and they are afterwards carefully covered over with gum to exclude the water. The bottom of the vessel is nearly flat, the sides are rounded, and either end terminates in a sharp edge. The price of one of these is about twelve pounds sterling, and it is calculated to contain, on the perilous voyage for which it is destined, a weight equal to that which follows: Sixty-five pieces of merchandize of ninety pounds each; eight men, each weighing at least one hundred and sixty pounds; baggage allowed to these men, at forty pounds each, together with the weight of their provisions. The whole cargo of a canoe is, therefore, not less than eight thousand three hundred and ninety pounds, exclusive of two oil cloths to cover the goods, a sail and an axe, a towing line to drag the canoe up the rapids, a kettle, a spunge to bail out the water imbibed by leakage; with gum, bark, watape, and utensils for repairing any injury which may be sustained on the voyage. The men are engaged at Montreal four or five months before they set out on their journey, and receive in advance their equipment, and one third of their wages. Each man holds in his hand a large paddle; and the canoe, although loaded within six inches of the gunwale, is made to move along with wonderful expedition. The *voyageurs*, or navigators, are of constitutions the strongest and most robust; and they are at an early period inured to the encounter of hardships. The fare on which they subsist is penurious and coarse. Fortified by habit against apprehension from the species of difficulties and perils with which they are about to struggle, they enter on their toils with confidence and hope. Whilst moving along the surface of the stream, they sing in alternate strains the songs and music of their country, and cause the desolate wilds on the banks of the Outaouais, to resound with the voice of chearfulness. They adapt in rowing their strokes to the cadence of their strains, and redouble their efforts by making them in time. In dragging the canoes up the rapids, great care is necessary to prevent them

from striking against rocks, the materials of which they are composed being slight and easily damaged. When a canoe receives an injury, the aperture is stopped with gum melted by the heat of a piece of burning charcoal. Fibres of bark bruised, and moistened with gum in a liquid state, are applied to larger apertures; a linen rag is put over the whole, and its edges are cemented with gum.

The total number of men contained in the canoes, amounts usually to about three hundred and seventy-three, of which three hundred and fifty are navigators, eighteen are guides, and five are clerks. When arrived at the grand depôt, on Lake Superior, part of these ascend as far as the Rainy Lake, and they are usually absent from Montreal about five months. The guides are paid for this service thirty seven pounds sterling, and are allowed besides, a suitable equipment. The wages of the person who sits in the front of the canoe, and of him whose office it is to steer, are about twenty-one pounds sterling each; those of the other men, about twelve pounds ten shillings of the same money.

To each man, a blanket, shirt, and pair of trowsers are supplied; and all are maintained by their employers during the period of their engagement. The advantage of trafficking with the savages is likewise permitted, and some individuals procure by this means a profit amounting to more than double their pay.

From La Chine, the voyagers proceed with the little fleet of canoes, to the parish of Saint Ann, where the river becomes so rapid and broken, that they are necessiated to take out a part of their lading. This situation, containing the last church which is met with on the voyage, excepting those belonging to Indian missions, it is dedicated to the tutelar saint of voyagers, and the commencement of the route is reckoned from hence.

The lake of the two mountains is an enlargement of the Grand, or Outaouais river, immediately behind the island of Montreal, and is nearly twenty miles in length, but of unequal width. As in many parts it is not much above three miles broad, its borders are distinctly seen on each side, and present to the view fields in a state of cultivation, intermingled with woods. Two gently swelling hills, which rise on its north-east coast, and have been dignified with the appellation of mountains, give to the lake its name. On a point of land stretching from under these, an Indian village, called Canasadago, is situated, composed of two associations of domiciliated natives, one of the Algonquin, and the other of the Iroquois tribe. The village is separated by the church into two parts, the Algonquins possessing the east, and the Iroquois the western extremity. The whole of the inhabitants may amount to about two thousand. Each tribe has

its distinct missionary, and the rites of the Roman Catholic religion are, in the same chapel, regularly and alternately performed in the respective tongues of these natives. The tract of land on which the village is built, belongs to the seminary of Montreal; and these Christian Indians are permitted by that community to retain it in their possession. A small portion of it only is cultivated by the women, and they reap from thence a moderate supply of Indian corn, tobacco, and culinary herbs. Like the other domiciliated natives of the colony, a considerable part of the men and women spend the winter in the woods, and in the occupation of the chace.

LAKE CHAUDIERE.

Lake Chaudiere is distant about 100 miles from that of the two mountains. Here a waterfall occupies the breadth of the river, and, dashing over a rugged and irregular cliff, of about thirty feet in altitude, exhibits to the view of the traveller, in the midst of a territory where dreary solitude prevails, an object at once brilliant, enlivening, and picturesque. Part of the river here diverging into a contrary channel, assumes a retrograde course, and pours into a basin, whose waters entirely disappear, but have probably a subterraneous communication with the channel farther down.

The river Rideau, directing its course from the southward, joins the Outaouais about a league below the fall now described, and presents a pleasing cataract. At a distance of forty miles up the latter, the falls of Les Chats disclose themselves to the eye, where over-hanging woods, rocks placed in perpendicular positions, and clouds of resplendent foam rolling down the precipice, contribute, amid the gloom of desolation, to cheer the mind of the observer. On the left side the largest body of water flows, and on the right there are several apertures on the summit of the cliff, through which the bursting waters force a passage, and, falling upon irregular projections, are tossed outwards, as if driven by the revolution of wheels. The stream swiftly sweeps from the basin over broken and shelving rocks, and forms a variety of small cataracts.

When, in ascending the Outaouais, the voyagers approach the rapids, they draw the canoes to the shore, excepting one, which they join in dragging up, and lodge in a place of security. Another is in like manner conducted to the head of the torrent, and they thus continue to drag until the whole are assembled. At the portages, where waterfalls and cataracts oblige them to unload, the men unite in aiding each other to convey the canoes and goods across the land, by carrying the former upon the shoulders of six or eight men, and the latter upon the back. A package of mer-

chandise forms a load for one man, and is sustained by a belt which he places over his forehead.

They form their encampments at night upon islands, or upon the borders of the river. The murmuring sound of the streams, the wildness of the situation, and remoteness from the habitations of men, added to the nocturnal gloom, powerfully invite the imagination to indulge itself in a train of melancholy reflections. On the north-east shore, about sixty miles higher up than the falls last described, is the site of an old French fort called Coulogne; and six miles farther is that of another, named Defon. At a distance of seventy-two miles from the latter is point *au Bapthême*, so denominated, because the rude ceremony is here performed of plunging into the waters of the Outaouais, such persons as have never before travelled thus far. An ordeal from which exemption may be purchased by the payment of a fine. The land here rises into hills, whose summits are conical, presenting a scene rugged and romantic.

The torments inflicted by legions of musquitos and flies, in journeying through these wildernesses, are intolerable to an European; but the hardy Canadians seem to disregard them, or to be but little subject to their attacks. At certain times the men put their canoes on shore, in order to cook their food, or, to use their own expression, *pour faire la chaudiere*.

The channel of this river is, in many situations, interspersed with a multitude of islands, and its course is interrupted by a great variety of cataracts and rapids. About 120 miles from point *au Bapthême*, the great branch of the Outaouais flowing from Lake Tamiscaming, is passed by the traveller on his right, and the canoes proceed upwards by the smaller branch; having ascended this about thirty-six miles, the fall of *Paresseux* opens on the sight. Although not exceeding a height of twenty-five feet, it forms an object not less interesting than pleasing. Masses of stone rise above the summit of the fall, and disclose themselves part of the way down its course; the rough convexities, and the ravines which have been worn in the cliff, covered with boiling, restless clouds of foam, present a combination of lustre, motion, and unremitting sound.

Twenty-five miles from hence the voyagers walk along a carrying-place of eight hundred paces, named *portage premier musique*, pass up a small lake of nearly the same length, and enter on a second *portage musique* of twelve hundred paces. From thence to the height of lands, and to the source of the smaller branch of the Outaouais, the distance is thirty miles. On quitting this branch they proceed by a portage of twenty acres to the small and winding stream, named *Chaussée de Castor*, some of whose sinuosities are avoided by a second and third portage of five hundred paces each. They then enter Lake Nipissing, whose length

is fifty miles, and whose discharge into Lake Huron, through a course of a hundred and eight miles, is called French river, on which there is one carrying-place. After having thus encountered the toils of thirty-six portages, the voyagers navigate their canoes along the northern coast of Lake Huron, and pursue their route to the cascades of Saint Mary, a description of which has already been given.

In travelling to the north-west by the Outaouais river, the distance from Montreal to the upper end of Lake Huron is 900 miles; the journey may be performed in a light canoe, in the space of about twelve days, and in heavy canoes in less than three weeks, which is astonishingly quick, when we reflect on the number of portages, and powerful currents to be passed.

About one-third of the men we have mentioned remain to winter in the remote territories, during which they are occupied in the chace, and for this service their wages and allowances are doubled. The other two-thirds are engaged for one or two years, and have attached to them about seven hundred Indian women and children maintained at the expence of the company; the chief occupation of the latter is to scrape and clean the parchments, and to make up and arrange the packages of peltry.

The period of engagement for the clerks is five or seven years, during which the whole of the pay of each is no more than 100l. together with cloathing and board. When the term of indenture is expired, a clerk is either admitted to a share in the company, or has a salary of from 100l. to 300l. *per annum*, until an opportunity of a more ample provision presents itself

The guides, who perform likewise the functions of interpreters, receive, besides a quantity of goods, a salary of about 85l. *per annum*. The foremen and steersmen who winter, have about 50l. sterling; and they who are termed the middle men in the canoes, have about 18l. sterling *per annum*, with their cloathing and maintenance.

The number of people usually employed in the north-west trade, and in pay of the company, amounts, exclusive of savages, to 1270 or 1280 men, 50 of whom are clerks, 71 interpreters and under clerks, 1120 are canoe-men, and 35 are guides.

The beaver skin is, among the savages, the medium of barter, and ten beaver-skins are given for a gun, one for a pound of powder, and one for two pounds of glass beads. Two martin skins are equal in value to one beaver skin, and two beaver to one otter skin.

FORMER AND PRESENT STATE OF THE CANADIAN GOVERNMENT.

The white inhabitants of Canada amounted, in 1758, to 91,000, exclusive of the regular troops, which were augmented or dimi-

nished, as the circumstances and exigencies of the country might require. The domiciliated Indians who were collected into villages, in different situations in the colony, were about 16,000, and the number of Frenchmen and Canadians resident at Quebec was nearly 8,000.

Previous to the year 1660, the influence of law was altogether unknown in Canada. The authority was entirely military, and the will of the Governor, or of his lieutenant, was submitted to without ever being questioned. The sole power of bestowing pardon, of inflicting punishment, of distributing rewards, of exacting fines, was vested in him alone. He could imprison without a shadow of delinquency, and cause to be revered, as acts of justice, all the irregularities of his caprice.

In the year mentioned above, a tribunal, to decide definitively on all law-suits of the colonists, was established in the capital. The *coûtume de Paris*, modified by local combinations, formed the code of these laws.

During the first four years after Canada came into possession of the British, it was divided into three military governments. At Quebec and at Three Rivers, officers of the army became judges in causes civil as well as criminal. These important functions were, at Montreal, committed to the better order of inhabitants. An equal want of legal information appears to have been the lot of all parties, and the commandant of the district, to whom an appeal from their sentences could be made, was no less defective in jurisprudence.

The coast of Labrador was, in 1764, dismembered from Canada, and added to the government of Newfoundland; and Lake Champlain, with all the territory to the southward of the forty-fifth degree of north latitude was joined to the province of New York. The extensive regions to the north and west of Michilimakinac, in Lake Huron, were left without any jurisdiction. The territory from the mouth of the Saint Lawrence, as far as that island was placed under the authority of one chief.

The laws of the admiralty of England were at the same time established there, but these could only have a reference to the subjects of that country, into whose hands the whole of the maritime commerce necessarily flowed. To this improvement, beneficial to the interest of the colony, another of yet greater importance was added. This was the criminal code of England.

Before the introduction of this equitable mode of administering justice, a criminal, real or supposed, could be seized, thrown into confinement, and interrogated, without a knowledge of his crime or of his accuser; without being able to call to his aid, or to the alleviation of his distress, either friends, relatives, or counsel.

He was compelled upon oath to declare the truth, or, in other words, to accuse himself, without any validity being attached to his solemn affirmation. It was the province of the lawyers or judges to embarrass him with captious questions, which could be more easily evaded, or more successfully answered, by effrontery and hardened villainy, than by innocence involved and confounded in a labyrinth of false accusation. The function of judge appeared to consist in the art of finding out the greatest number of persons whom he might accuse. The witnesses who had made depositions against the criminal were not introduced to his presence until the instant before judgment was pronounced, by which he was either acquitted or delivered over to immediate punishment. In the former case, the person innocent obtained no indemnity; and a sentence of capital punishment was followed by confiscation of property. Such is the abridgment of the French criminal law.

The Canadians readily conceived, and felt in a lively manner, the inestimable advantage of a system of jurisdiction too equitable to admit of any of the tyrannical modes of procedure which they had before been accustomed to witness or experience. These people viewed not, however, with an equal degree of satisfaction the introduction of the civil code of England. They were prompted by habit and prejudice to give a preference to the ancient system under which their property had been protected. The magistrates and other administrators of justice found it therefore expedient to depart from the letter of the law, and to incline in their decisions to the maxims which had before prevailed.

By an act called the Quebec act, passed in the British legislature in 1775, Canada was extended to its ancient limits, and its former system of civil law, the *coûtume de Paris* was restored. The criminal and maritime regulations of England were retained, free exercise of the Roman catholic religion was allowed, and the profession of that faith was declared to be no impediment to the rights of the subject, or to his holding any office under the colonial government. Ecclesiastical *dimes* and feodal obligations resumed their validity.

A council formed by the sovereign might annul these arrangements, and exercise any power except that of imposing taxes. This body consisted of the lieutenant-governor, chief justice, secretary of the province, and of twenty other members chosen indifferently from the two nations, and subject only to an oath of fidelity. Each of these received a salary of an hundred pounds sterling a year. The expences of the civil government of the colony amounted, at that period to twenty-five thousand pounds sterling a year, exclusive of the governor's salary. The amount

of the colonial revenue exceeded not nine thousand pounds sterling.

This plan of vesting in the same individuals the executive and legislative powers was not by any means productive of satisfaction. The subjects who had emigrated thither from Great Britain, and who had established themselves in the colony, were displeased to behold a portion of their most valuable privileges withdrawn from their reach; and the Canadians, who had begun to relish the advantages of a free government, and who were encouraged to look forward for the introduction of the English constitution, viewed with concern a barrier interposed to the accomplishment of their expectations. The system was not contemplated with partiality, even on the part of the statesman by whom it was originally framed. But its temporary operation was considered as expedient, on account of the symptoms of discontent which had then appeared in several of the British provinces on the continent of North America.

The country continued to be governed in this mode until 1792. By an act of the thirty-first year of his present Majesty's reign, the Quebec bill, already mentioned, was repealed, and all the advantages of the British constitution extended to this part of the empire. Agreeably to this law, Quebec was divided into two separate provinces, the one called Upper, the other Lower Canada. A legislative council and an assembly were, at the same time, constituted to each, and these bodies were empowered, with the assent of the governor, to pass such laws as should not be repugnant to the act to which they owed their political existence. The legislative council of Upper Canada consists of not fewer than seven members, and that of Lower Canada of not fewer than fifteen, subject to be augmented according to the royal pleasure.. The members must be natural born subjects, persons naturalized, or such persons as became subjects by the conquest and cession of the country. By a residence out of their respective provinces for a period of four entire successive years, without leave from his majesty, or for the space of two continued years without leave from the governor, or by taking an oath of allegiance to any foreign power, the seats of any members of the legislative council become vacated. These offices are otherwise held during life. The right of appointing or of removing the speaker of the legislative council is vested in the governor.

His majesty reserves to himself the power of creating, whenever he may think it expedient, dignities or titles in these provinces, descendable to heirs male, who may have the privilege of being summoned, when of age, to a seat in the legislative council. But this, on account of certain incapacities, may be suspended during life, and be resumed by the next lawful heir, on the death of the party who had been so deprived of his privilege.

The governor, by the king's authority, is empowered to call a house of assembly, whose members must be chosen for the counties or circles, by persons possessed of landed property of the clear yearly value of forty shillings sterling or upwards. For the towns the representatives must be elected by voters whose property consists of a dwelling-house and lot of ground in the town, of the yearly value of five pounds sterling or upwards, or who have been resident in the town for twelve months next before the date of the writ of summons, and shall have paid one year's rent for a dwelling or lodging, at the rate of at least 10*l.* sterling *per annum*. The council and assembly must be convoked once in twelve months, and each legislature continues for a term of four years and no longer, subject however, if necessary, to be dissolved previous to the expiration of that period.

The king in council may declare his disallowance of any provincial act within two years from the time of its receipt in England; and all bills reserved for his majesty's pleasure are to have no operation or validity until the royal assent be communicated to the colonial legislature.

A court of civil jurisdiction, composed of the governor with the executive council, for the purpose of hearing and deciding on appeals from the courts of law, was by the same act established in both provinces. From hence a further appeal may be made to the king in council.

The lands in Upper Canada must be granted in free and common soccage; and those in the lower province must likewise be bestowed according to the same mode of tenure, if required by the grantee.

The governor of either province, upon being so authorized by his majesty, may, with the advice of his council, erect parsonages, and endow them; he may also present incumbents, all of whom must be subjected to the ecclesiastical power of the protestant bishop.

The operation of this act of the British legis[illegible] was, by proclamation of the lieutenant-governor, declared to t[illegible] in both provinces on the twenty-sixth day of December 179[illegible]nd another proclamation was published on the seventh of May in the following year, for the division of the province of Lower Canadas into counties, cities, and boroughs. On the fourteenth of the same month writs were issued, returnable on the tenth of July. The names of the counties are; Gaspé, Cornwallis, Devon, Hertford, Dorchester, Buckinghamshire, Richelieu, Bedford, Surrey, Kent, Huntingdon, York, Montreal, Effingham, Leinster, Warwick, Saint Maurice, Hampshire, Quebec county, Northumberland, Orleans. The cities, Quebec, upper

and lower town, Montreal, eastward and westward divisions; boroughs, William Henry or Sorel, and Three Rivers.

An act was passed in 1794 for the division of the province of Lower Canada into three districts, and for augmenting the number of judges; in consequence of which, the courts of judicature at Quebec are now composed of a chief justice and three puisne judges. Those of Montreal of a chief justice and three puisne judges; that of Three Rivers, of one judge; and that of Gaspé, of one judge. Every person in Canada may have within his power the means of acquiring a subsistence. The necessaries of life are, in general, there to be procured at a cheaper rate than in most of the other parts of North America. The climate, although frequently inclining to extremes, both in cold and in heat, is nevertheless favourable to human health, and to the increase of population.

The number of *noblesse* born in the province, amounted, during the French government, to more than that of all the other colonies. This circumstance originated from several families there having been ennobled by the sovereign, and from several officers of the regiment of Carignan-Saliéres having remained in the colony after the reduction of their corps. The population thus consisted, in a considerable proportion, of gentlemen who found themselves in situations by no means affluent. They became therefore necessitated to avail themselves of the privilege granted by Louis the Fourteenth to persons in their condition, and had recourse for their support to the occupation of retailers of merchandise.

The right of the chace and of fishing is here extended to all persons. The taxes, chiefly derived from wine and spirituous liquors, can by no means be considered as burdensome. The inhabitants of Canada may be divided into four classes. Those belonging to the church and to religious orders, the *noblesse* or *seigneurs*, the mercantile body, and the landholders, stiled *habitants*.

The Roman catholic clergy of the province are more distinguished by devotion, benevolence, inoffensive conduct, and humanity, than they are by learning or genius. They are regular and rigid in the practice of their religious ceremonies, and more devout, with perhaps less bigotry, than the ecclesiastics of any other country where the same religion prevails. The merchants are of two kinds, the importers and the retailers. The latter receive the merchandise on credit, and being settled in different parts of the province give produce in return for their goods.

In 1783 an account was taken of the number of inhabitants in the province; it was found to amount to 113,000 of English and French, exclusive of the loyalists who settled in the upper

province, and were in number about 10,000. The population of Lower Canada may at present be admitted, by moderate computation, to be not less than 250,000 persons, and that of the upper province 80,000.

The secular and regular priests in the country exceed not 180, and the number of nuns of different orders may amount to 250. There are upwards of 120 churches, and seven convents.

GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.

The *habitants*, or landholders, are honest, hospitable, religious, inoffensive, uninformed, possessing much simplicity, modesty, and civility. Indolent, attached to ancient prejudices, and limiting their exertions to an acquisition of the necessaries of life, they neglect the conveniences. Their propensity to a state of inaction, retains many of them in poverty; but as their wants are circumscribed, they are happy. Contentment of mind, and mildness of disposition, seem to be the leading features in their character. Their address to strangers is more polite and unembarrassed than that of any other peasantry in the world. Rusticity, either in manners or in language, is unknown even to those who reside in situations the most remote from the towns. They have little inclination for novelty or improvement, and exhibit no great portion of genius, which may perhaps be in some degree attributed to the want of education, of examples to pursue, and of opportunities to excite emulation, or to unfold the latent qualities of the mind.

Their constitution, at an early period of life, is healthy and robust; and they can with patience and resolution encounter great fatigues when necessity calls for exertion. Both men and women frequently live to an advanced period of life, but they soon look old, and their strength is not of long duration. Many of the women are handsome when young, but as they partake of the labours of the field, and expose themselves upon all occasions to the influence of the weather, they soon become of a sallow hue, and of a masculine form. Each family can, from its own resouces, supply its wants. They manufacture their own linens and woollen stuffs, tan the hides of their cattle, make shoes and stockings, are their own carpenters, masons, wheelers, and taylors. They are sufficiently intelligent with regard to objects which relate to their own interest, and are seldom liable to be over-reached.

They are, with some degree of justice, taxed with ingratitude;

this may perhaps proceed from their natural levity, which incapacitates the mind from receiving a sufficient impression of obligations bestowed. They are bad servants, because indolence and a spirit of independance make the yoke of subjection, however light, to appear to them burdensome and unpleasant. They who are masters are, on the contrary, kind and indulgent to their domestics. Accustomed to concern themselves only in their own affairs, they are not remarkable for constancy in friendship.

On the commencement of winter the *habitants* kill their hogs, cattle, and poultry, for their own consumption, and for sale at market. The provisions are kept in the garrets of the dwelling-houses where they soon become frozen, and are thus preserved until wanted for use. Vegetables are deposited in cellars, or in excavations of the earth made for the purpose, beyond the influence of the cold. The whole of the Canadian inhabitants are remarkably fond of dancing, and frequently amuse themselves at all seasons with that agreeable exercise.

STATE OF AGRICULTURE IN CANADA.

To clear lands in lower Canada, they cut down the wood with a hatchet, heap it together, and burn it; the large roots are extirpated by digging into the ground. The soil thus laid open becomes covered with vegetation, and cattle are sent to graze upon it. This mode is tedious and expensive, and costs, including labour, about thirty shillings sterling per acre. The Americans have introduced into the province a practice much more simple and economical, and attended with equal success. They cut down the trees, burn them, and sow between the trunks, after having turned up the earth with a harrow or hoe. A third method is by setting fire to the growing woods, and cutting around the bark of the larger trees, to prevent the sap from ascending; these dry up during the first year, and cease to re-produce their foilage; the farmer then sows his grain, and removes at leisure the trees that are dead. The cedar and spruce trees, whose roots are incorruptible, and long resist the ploughshare, it becomes necessary to eradicate before the land can be sown.

An active and intelligent farmer, says our author, will in the end find it more advantageous to take uncleared land, or that which is half cleared, than to purchase such as has been long in cultivation. The latter is subject to have been exhausted by the bad mode of farming practised in the country. The fields are generally laid out with little taste; and it is certainly more agree-

able for him to arrange, after his own plan, his house, his offices, his fields, and his avenues.

In Lower Canada, acquisition of property of two kinds may be made; the one in the dependence on a *seigneur*, the other from government, in free and common soccage. Lands of the last description are divided into *townships*, and each township into lots of two hundred acres each, receding in depth from the front line. When a person obtains twelve hundred acres he pays half the expence of the survey, and his proportion of fees, and two-sevenths of the land are reserved for the disposal of government.

The borders of the great river, and those of most of the rivers which disembogue themselves into it, are occupied by *seigneuries*, under the regulation of the French laws. The lands at the disposal of government, part of which are conceded, lie retired in the depths, between the rivers Chaudiere, Saint Francis, Yamaska, and Chambly, extending to the forty-fifth parallel, and are subject to English rights.

The usual conditions adopted in letting farms are, that the proprietor should furnish the cattle, and incur the expence of clearing, of making new ditches and fences, and of supplying utensils of husbandry. The produce of every description is aferwards equally divided between him and the farmer. The public charges are, a contribution of labour, or of money, for the repair of roads and bridges, and the payment of the ecclesiastical *dime*, at a twenty-sixth part on wheat, oats, barley, rye, and peas.

The average produce of the soils in Lower Canada may be estimated at fifteen to one for oats, twelve for barley, six for pease, and eleven for summer wheat. The Canadian farmer generally allows after wheat, a natural layer, which is pastured on by cattle, and consists of small white clover and grass. This mode is highly uneconomical for breeding of these animals. In the following autumn the land is ploughed, and in the spring sown with wheat or oats. The 20th of April is the usual time at which the sowing commences in Lower Canada, and the whole of the seed is usually in the ground before the fifteenth of May. The season for beginning the harvest is early in August. The Canadians have, for several years past, adopted the practice of British husbandmen, by introducing manure into their lands, and they are now convinced of the utility and profit attending that mode of culture.

A considerable proportion of the lands in Lower Canada is of a light soil, and it is an opinion generally received, that these are soon exhausted. The rains, which fall heavily upon a moun-

tainous country, will more readily carry away a sandy than a clayey soil, the particles of which adhere more strongly to each other. A soil may become impoverished by the loss of those earthy particles into which the plants which grow upon it are at length reduced, and of which it is deprived when they are not allowed to decay upon the spot where they have been reared. Plants do not take away any sensible weight from the soil, and it is the moisture with which the earth is watered that is the sole cause of vegetation. The soil, it appears, is nothing more than a *matrix*, in which the *germina* of plants receive their growth, and which they seem only to derive from heat and moisture. Water alone may contain all the salts, and all the principles that are to concur in producing this growth. A light soil is tilled by the most trifling labour, and is easily penetrated by rains; but a heavy rain will press it together, and thereby prevent it from imbibing moisture to any considerable depth; in this state, if wet weather be soon succeeded by sunshine, the humidity is evaporated, and it is deprived of the nourishment which it should have otherwise supplied to its vegetables. Prejudice then determined the soil to be exhausted and ruined; it was absudoned, when nothing more was wanting, to reward with ample returns the proprietor by whom it was neglected, than the application of a proper mode of agriculture.

A somewhat less degree of friability constitutes what is termed a strong soil, which requires tillage of a more laborious nature. But this species of land, when once prepared, manured, and watered, preserves a much longer time its moisture, which is a necessary vehicle of the salts, whether they be conveyed and successively renewed by rains or by artificial watering. Manure separates the soil, and raises it for a time, either by its active particles, which, in compact soils, can only unfold themselves by degrees, or by its oily particles, which fattening land of the former species render it capable of retaining, for a longer time, the moisture, which its too great laxity, and the incoherence of its particles would otherwise soon allow to escape. Manure, therefore, properly applied, supplies in a certain degree, and according to its quality, the deficiency of tillage. But no expedient can be an equivalent for rain. In America there is no rainy season which is not fruitful, whilst, in a dry season, the income diminishes sometimes one-half.

REMARKS ON THE CLIMATE OF CANADA.

From the position of the settled part of Upper Canada, the climate is comparatively mild in winter, which is there but of

short duration, and frequently without much frost; it sometimes indeed happens, that in the course of that season there is hardly any snow. Neither Lake Ontario, Lake Erie, Lake Huron, or Lake Michigan, are subject to be frozen at any great distance from their coasts; but Lake Superior, from its northerly situation, is usually covered by a solid body of ice, for an extent of seventy miles from land.

To attribute the predominance of cold in Canada to the multiplicity and extent of its rivers and lakes, appears to be an hypothesis not altogether correct. The humidity of the earth, and the abundance of water, every where diffused throughout its surface, contribute, doubtless, in the summer months, to produce a coolness, by the evaporation which then takes place, in consequence of the dry and warm state of the atmosphere. But, in winter, when the degree of cold has once attained the freezing point, it can receive no augmentation from water; that element, considerably warmer than the part of the atmosphere to which it is contiguous, continues to emit warmth until its surface becomes congealed.

The long continuation of frost and snows, which for a period of near six months in the year prevails in Lower Canada, may be attributed to the immense and desert regions which stretch towards the north. The snow seldom falls in any quantity in that province, unless when the wind blows from the north-east, which is the quarter of the mountains of ice. In passing over the unfrozen parts of the sea, the current of cold air drives before it the vapour emitted from thence, which become immediately converted into snow. Whilst the wind continues in that direction, and whilst the snows are falling, the degree of cold is diminished; but no sooner does it change its position to the north-west, than the cold is considerably augmented. The evaporation of the snows contributes much to render so keen the winds of the west, and north-west, which, previous to their arrival in Lower Canada, traverse immense countries, and a prodigious chain of mountains enveloped in that fleecy covering.

The elevation of the earth is not the least important cause of the subtilty of the air, and of the severity of cold in this part of America, as the regions to the northward probably extend to the pole. The winds in Lower Canada generally proceed from the north-west, or north-east. When blowing from the former quarter, they pass over a long tract of territory, and the surface of the earth within the limits of their course, becomes deprived of a portion of its heat to mitigate the air. But, on continuing to blow in the same direction, they will sweep over a surface

already cooled, and will thence receive no abatement of their severity. Advancing in this manner, they produce in their course the intenseness of frost. When the winds pass over large collections of water, the surface becomes cool, and the air proportionably mitigated; the colder water, more weighty than that beneath, descends; its place is supplied by that which is warmer, and a continued revolution thus takes place, until the surface becomes solid, and the further developement of warmth is restrained.

The vast and immeasurable forests which overspread the face of Canada, essentially contribute to the domination of cold. The leaves and branches of the trees are thickly interwoven with each other, and the surface of the ground, particularly in the northern parts, is covered by shrubs, brambles, and the more rank productions of vegetation. Into these gloomy recesses the rays of the sun can with difficulty penetrate, and can visit them but during a transient portion of the long summer's day. The earth overshadowed during the prevalence of heat, and covered by snow in winter, can emit but a small degree of warmth to temper the piercing winds; and the leaves of the trees which are exposed to the sun, possess not a sufficient quantity of matter to imbibe, or to retain the effect of his rays. The winds, in passing over these forests, can therefore undergo but little alteration in their temperature. The snows are there retained in the spring, to a much later period than on the cleared grounds, and tend to the prolongation of cold.

The clearing and cultivation of lands have much contributed to the amelioration of the climate of Canada; and the number of fires kept up in the habitations in different parts of the country, may likewise have a share in producing this change. Certain however it is, that the winters in those parts of Lower Canada, in the vicinity of Quebec, have remitted several degrees of their former severity. An intelligent priest in the island of Orleans, kept, for half a century, a correct meteorological table; and his successor continued it for eight years longer. The result of their observations tended to prove, that the medium of cold in winter had diminished eight degrees within that period.

The mercury in the thermometer sometimes descends in winter to the 36th degree below O in Fahrenheit's scale; but the atmosphere rarely continues long in that dry and intense state. The river Saint Lawrence is seldom frozen so far down its course as Quebec, although immense bodies of ice crowding upon each other, continue to float up and down with the tides. The winter of 1799 was the last in which what is called the

Pont was formed, and when carriages passed across the ice from Quebec to Point Levi. The ice in these regions is of a much harder nature than that of climates less subject to the influence of severe frost; it contains more air, and its contexture is much stronger, from the great degree of cold by which it is congealed; being suddenly formed, it is less transparent, as well as harder, than that which is more tardy in its formation.

The ice on the rivers in Canada, acquires a thickness of two feet and upwards, and is capable of supporting any degree of weight. That on the borders of the Saint Lawrence, called the *bordage*, sometimes exceeds six feet. The ice on the center of the stream, where it is frozen over, is the thinnest part, occasioned probably by the convexity of the river. In great bodies of water which run with rapidity, the center is higher frequently by some feet than the surface towards either of the shores.

Horses and carriages are driven with great rapidity along the ice, and an accident seldom happens, except sometimes towards the spring, when it becomes rotten and insecure.

The accumulation of snow in the woods, where it is not subject to be drifted by the winds, is usually six or seven feet in depth about the end of February, when it has attained its greatest quantity. The influence of the sun, after that period, gradually consumes it, although fresh supplies continue at intervals to fall, sometimes for six weeks after that period. The relative proportion of the snow to water, may be ascertained by means of a long cylinder closed at one end, and immersed until it reach the surface of the ground. It will thus contain a column of snow equal to the depth that has fallen; and on its being dissolved, will shew the quantity of water to which it is equal.

The mode of travelling in winter is no less rapid than convenient. A vehicle, called a *cariole*, is drawn by one or two horses, which are harnessed in the same manner as for any other carriage. The body of the more fashionable kind is like that of a curricle, and is fixed upon a slay shod with iron. It has an apron of bear-skin or leather, and within it is placed a buffalo-skin, called a robe, with which the legs and feet are kept warm. A person may thus travel, or drive about for his pleasure, without much inconvenience from cold, particularly if he employ a servant to drive the horses. In bad weather, slays with tops or covers made of leather, are in use. When the roads are level and good, the draft of one of those carriages is very little fatiguing for a horse, as a small degree of impulse

is then required to retain it in rapid motion. After a heavy fall of snow, the loaded slays which pass along in the vicinity of the towns, alternately take up in their front, and deposit a quantity of snow, and thus form in the roads furrows and ridges in a transverse position, which are called *cahots;* until these are filled up, travelling becomes fatiguing and unpleasant.

There is scarcely a *habitant* in Lower Canada who possesses not one or two slays, and much time is consumed during the winter season in driving from one place to another. The horses are of the Norman breed, and are rather small, but stout, hardy, fleet, and well calculated for draft. Notwithstanding the little care that is bestowed on them, and the ill treatment which many of them experience, they in general possess their strength to a great age.

The houses are kept warm in winter by means of cast metal-stoves, in which wood is burnt, and which, through pipes formed of sheet-iron, communicate an equable portion of heat to every part of a chamber. By this mode, and by the precautions which are taken on the part of the inhabitants, in wearing suitable cloathing when they expose themselves to the air, the severity of the climate is but little felt or regarded.

The dry cold, by contracting the pores of the skin, seems in some degree to present a remedy for its own intenseness, and to counteract those impressions, of which the human frame would otherwise become more susceptible, and be perhaps unequal to sustain.

The French language, which is that of the inhabitants of Lower Canada, is spoken without any provincial accent. The proceedings of the legislature, and also those of the courts of law, are both in the English and French tongues.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE AMERICAN INDIANS.

We have now arrived at the most interesting part of our Analysis, that which describes the manners and customs of the natives; and we intend to be as copious in our extracts as we have been in those descriptive of the country. In many situations on the continent of America, observes Mr. Heriot, the human race is found to approach nearer to a state of nature, than in any part of the ancient world. The condition of some of its inhabitants seems but little removed from that of the animals which range the gloomy and boundless woods. Man may here be contemplated, either emerging from a rude state of liberty, or united into small communities, or in a state of comparative civilization.

Although many of the Americans differ from each other in stature and in features, yet in complexion there is very little variation. The tawny colour verging towards that of copper, is peculiar to the native inhabitants of the whole of this continent. This effect cannot be attributed to the degrees of temperature in the climate, to the air which they respire, or to the nature of their aliment; for in no part of this extensive region has the European complexion, throughout a descent of many generations, undergone any change from its original colour. The features of the Americans, when allowed to retain the shape which nature has designed them, would be by no means irregular or disgusting. Their hair is coarse, lank, and black; their eyes are of the same hue; and a prominence in the bones of the cheek seems to form an almost general characteristic.

Intercourse with Europeans has effaced many of the ancient customs, and changed in a considerable degree the manners of a great number of the Indian tribes. To acquire a knowledge of their original state, we must endeavour to trace their history in the works of the missionaries, and in those of other writers who have directed their researches to different parts of this continent.

In delineating the manners of people whose sphere of observation is confined to the objects of nature by which they are surrounded, it will be necessary to describe customs which may appear tinctured with folly and absurdity. An acquaintance, however, with the nature of man, can alone be gained by an observation of his conduct in the various situations in which he is placed.

The origin of the inhabitants of this continent, cannot be traced with any degree of certainty. As the straits between Asia and America, in the latitude of sixty-six degrees north, are not many leagues in breadth, it is not improbable, that emigration from the old to the new hemisphere, first took place in this part of the globe.

Several of the natives have derived from their ancestors a confused tradition, in which the primitive descent of no particular race of men is described. It seems to regard the general origin of mankind, which being the most striking of all subjects of enquiry, has made an impression even on the minds of men who have attained but little progress in improvement.

The Indians seem not, in general to be ignorant that their forefathers were strangers in the country which they now inhabit. They assert, that they migrated from a distant region towards the west. The Iroquois, who, of all the nations of North America, the inhabitants of Mexico excepted, had made the greatest advancement in the social state, assert, that for a series of years they wandered from one situation to another, under the conduct

of a female. By her they were led over a great portion of the continent of North America, until they made choice of the tract which they now occupy, whose climate was more temperate, and whose soil was more adapted to the purposes of cultivation than that of any place they had before visited. She there distributed lands among her followers, and thus founded a colony which has ever since retained its station. The inhabitants of Agnier differ somewhat from the rest of the Iroquois, in the account which they give of their origin, and claim an exemption from the appellation of *Agonnonsionni*, or constructors of dwellings, which is applied to the other tribes of that nation. The natives of the neighbouring territories, blend under one name the five tribes of the Iroquois, although each is possessed of its peculiar dialect. They inhabit the country on the north and south of lake Ontario, bounded on the east by lake Champlain. They are divided into Upper and Lower Iroquois, and into five cantons; the former distinguished by the appellations of Tsonnonthouans, Goyogouens, and Onontagues; the latter by those of Agniers Onoyouths. By extending their wars far beyond the limits of their domains, they found a nation in Virginia which differed but little from them in language, and which, although formerly connected with them by some affinity, had long been unknown to them or forgotten. Of this conformity of language they availed themselves, by combining the interests of that people with their own, and thus strengthened their association.

These tribes, notwithstanding a variety of causes for jealousy, have ever maintained an union among themselves, which they express by saying, that they compose only one cabin or family.

In many of the customs of the savages in America, a similarity to those of people in very different quarters of the globe is discoverable; and some words in their languages appear likewise to have sounds, as well as applications, in which an analogy may be traced to languages that existed, or do still exist, among people of the ancient continent. From accidental sources like these, some writers have pretended to trace the countries from whence the natives of America first emigrated.

It is observed by an eminent historian, that the dispositions and manners of men are formed by their situation, and arise from the state of society in which they live. If we suppose two bodies of men, though in the most remote regions of the globe, to be placed in a state of society similar in its degree of improvement, they must feel the same wants, and exert the same endeavours to supply them. The same objects will allure, the same passions will animate them, and the same ideas and sentiments will arise in their minds. In every part of the earth the progress of man hath been nearly the same, and we can trace him in his career,

from the rude simplicity of savage life, until he attains the industry, the arts, and the elegance of polished society. There are, it is true, among every people some customs, which, as they do not flow from any natural want or desire peculiar to their situation, may be denominated usages of arbitrary institution. If, between two nations settled in remote parts of the earth, a perfect agreement with respect to these should be discovered, one may be led to suspect that they were connected by some affinity. America may have received its first inhabitants from our continent, either by the north-west of Europe, or the north-east of Asia; but there seems to be good reason for supposing that the progenitors of all the American nations, from Cape Horn to the north, migrated from the latter rather than the former.

The savages preserve their skin free from all excrescences of hair, excepting that on the head and eye-brows, and even this some of them are at the trouble to eradicate. On the first arrival of Europeans on their coasts, their suprise at the uncommon appearance of these strangers became excessive; and the long beard, which at that period was the prevailing mode, gave them, in the eyes of the natives, an air of hideous deformity.

Many of the Americans are endowed with a considerable capacity, with a lively imagination, a facility of conception, and strong powers of recollection. Some of the northern natives retain traces of an ancient hereditary religion, and of a species of government. They reason justly on their own affairs, and direct themselves with considerable certainty to the attainment of the ends they have in view. With a flegmatic coolness inconsistent with the more active dispositions of civilized men, they enter upon the most serious concerns; they are seldom touched with anger; but when under the influence of that passion, appear to have no possession of their faculties. A certain degree of haughtiness, a disregard of the opinions of others, and a total independance, seem to predominate in the savage character. An American would act and speak, with the same freedom and arrogance, in an assembly of the most powerful chiefs, as among his own tribe.

Their education is almost entirely limited to the knowledge of making war by stealth, and to the habitual exercise of patience and fortitude in enduring the most severe trials of misery and pain. The condition of their life, and the state of their society, are the irresistible reasons which guide their conduct in either of those situations. Their courage does not appear inferior to that of the rest of mankind, and it is only the mode of exercising it, which constitutes the difference in this respect, between them and more civilized nations.

In the manners of all the inhabitants of the western conti-

nent, although a strong similitude is discoverable, almost every nation has, nevertheless, certain usages peculiar to itself. Among the Illinois, the Sioux of Louisiana, the inhabitants of Florida and Yucatan, there were young men who assumed the dress of women, which they retained during their lives, and were satisfied with executing the lowest drudgeries of the other sex. They never married, they assisted in all the ceremonies in which superstition appeared to be concerned, and this extraordinary mode of life made them pass among their countrymen as persons of a superior order, and above the common classes of mankind. Customs similar to these formerly prevailed among the nations of Asia who adored Cybélê, and among the more eastern tribes, who consecrated to the Phrygian Goddess, or to Venus Urania, priests habited like women, whose countenances were effeminate, who painted themselves, and who made it their study to disguise their real sex. As the latter degenerated among their countrymen into subjects of derision and contempt, the former were also, from the debauchery of their lives, regarded with aversion and disgust. Many of them were cut off by the Spaniards, who conceiving that they were subservient to the most shameful passions, delivered them over a prey to furious dogs, which were made also the instruments of destruction to a great part of the naked Indians.

In the savage state, where indolence and sloth are considered as enjoyments, a disposition to activity is rarely to be discovered. To prepare pallisades for their forts, to construct or repair their cabins, to dress the inside of the skins with which they cloath themselves, to fabricate some articles of domestic furniture, to mend or to renew the simple instruments in use among them, to paint and ornament themselves after their own rude and fantastical taste, form, next to those of war and the chace, the most laborious occupations of the men.

Having an immense extent of territory over which to range, the more sedentary tribes have learnt by experience to choose, with sufficient judgement, situations for their villages. These are usually placed in the midst of the best soil, and upon an eminence if such can be found, to command a prospect of the neighbouring country, and to enable the inhabitants thereby to guard against surprise. They endeavour to combine with these local advantages, the choice of a spot on the banks of a river which glides in a serpentine course in order to form a ditch around those fortifications which unimproved art enables them to add to the conveniences supplied by nature.

The villages which are most exposed to an enemy, are fortified with pallisades from fifteen to thirty feet in altitude, placed closely together, and composed of a triple range, the center of

which is planted perpendicularly, the others in a slanting position and the whole is thickly lined to the height of twelve feet, with bark of trees. Within the fort, there are certain situations filled with stones to throw upon an enemy, and likewise reservoirs of water for extinguishing fires. The inhabitants ascend to their forts by means of trees or logs full of notches. The general form of pallisaded defences, is round or oval, with only one entrance.

About a hundred cabins, with seven families in each, form the general size of an Iroquois village. These people seldom reside in their forts, unless when threatened with danger, or in a state of actual warfare. The habitations of all the native tribes, of America, evince the poverty, simplicity and frugality of men born in the infancy of a new world; and if we except the inhabitants of Peru and Mexico, who construct small hovels of stone, in which neither art, regularity, nor convenience are displayed, some other people in their vicinity, who finish their huts with a kind of plaister or cement, almost the whole of the other Indian nations possess but wretched cabins, calculated to convey an idea of the greatest misery.

The dwellings of the natives of Tlascala, of Tapeaca, and the greater part of those of Mexico, were composed of branches of trees covered with turf or mud. The entrance was extremely low, and several families dwelt under the same roof. Vessels made of clay were the only culinary utensils of these people.

The houses of the Peruvians were in general eight feet high, the materials of which they were constructed being stone or bricks dried in the sun. They were in the form of a quadrangle, without any aperture for the admission of light except the door, which was extremely low and contracted. A mode of architecture, equally uniform and simple, was practised in raising their consecrated edifices. These varied only with regard to their dimensions. The temple of Pachacamac, to which a palace of the Incas, and a fortress were conjoined, formed a structure whose extent was considerable, its circumference being more than half a league, and its height about twelve feet. A pile of this magnitude, may doubtless be reputed to have been a monument of industry among a people totally ignorant of the uses of the mechanical powers. The bricks and stones of which it was composed, were laid upon each other without the intervention of mortar, which was unknown to the Peruvians, and joined with such nicety and precision, that the interstices were not discoverable, except on a near approach of the beholder. As no light entered but from the doors, the interior of the building must have been illuminated by some artificial means.

Cuzco was the only place in the empire of Peru which could

claim the appellation of city. In every other part of the country the natives resided in huts detatched from each other, and in some situations composing small villages.

The natives of Davis's Straits, of Nova Zembla, and of California, retire into caverns prepared by nature, or excavate the sides of banks, in which they pass a long winter, little different from the wild animals which dig for themselves dwellings in the earth. They repose in the summer under the shade of the forests, or under encampments made with the skins of seals.

On the borders of the Oroonoque, on those of the river of the Amazons, and in countries liable to periodical inundations, villages are exalted into the air over the middle of waters and marshes. Their inhabitants form posts of the palm-tree of a considerable height, and crossing each other, being connected by transverse beams. On these, whose altitude is from twenty to thirty-five feet, habitations are erected, which appear designed rather for vultures than for men. The women when burdened with their children, or with domestic baggage, will ascend with admirable facility to these aërial abodes, by ladders formed of trees rudely notched. It is not only against the dangers of the floods that these people guard themselves by such extraordinary asylums; they are thus protected from the sudden incursions of their enemies, from being surprised by crocodiles or tigers, and from the torment of musquitoes and other flies which seldom elevate themselves so far from the earth, and whose attacks would, without this precaution be insupportable.

The conquerors of New Spain found several nations lodged in this manner, whom they experienced great difficulty in subduing, and who killed many of their people.

Wandering nations, such as the Algonquins, who remain but for a short time in one situation, are satisfied with making their huts extremely low, and with placing them in a confused manner. They generally carry vith them large rolls of the bark of the birch-tree, and form the frames of the cabins of wattles or twigs stuck into the earth in a circular figure, and united near their upper extremities. Upon the outside of this frame the bark is unrolled and thus affords shelter from rain and from the influence of the sun. The Indians near Monterry in north-west America, are in person under the middle size, and ill proportioned. They also construct their tempory lodgings of wattles arranged in a conical form, interwoven with ribs, like basket work; they are about eight feet in height, having an aperture at the summit, for the issue of the smoke. The exterior is thickly thatched with dried reeds, grass, or rushes. The dwellings of some of the other tribes of the north-west, are composed of planks; they are of twenty-five feet in length, and fifteen in breadth, secured from

the weather with bark. The fire is always made in the center. These sheds contain from eighteen to twenty people, the men being separated from the women and children. Every cabin appears to form a small colony independent of the others; each has canoes appropriated for its use, and each its individual chief.

The sedentary tribes have habitations more capacious and solid. The cabins of the Caraibs are of great length, extending from sixty to eighty feet, and composed of forked posts twenty or thirty feet high, over which, to form the ridges of the roofs, palm-trees or cabbage-trees are laid. The cabbage-tree frequently attains the altitude of two hundred feet, is perfectly straight, decreasing but little in diameter, destitute of branches, unless at its summit, which is surrounded by ten or twelve green boughs, with long and narrow leaves thickly growing on each side, extending to the extremity; these bend downwards with elegance and resemble in appearance the feathers of an ostrich. On each side of the cabbage-tree thus placed along the ridge of the frame, small trees are adjusted at proper intervals, sloping to the ground, which they are made to enter with their lower ends. The whole is thatched with palm-leaves, with reeds, or with the tops of canes, so well secured as to defend the inhabitants for a long period against all injuries from the weather. No light is admitted but from the door of the cabin, which is so low, that they who enter creep upon their hands and knees. The interior part is extremely dark, and although kept very neat and clean by the women, appears comfortless on account of the smoke which proceeds from a number of fires kept continually burning, every person being allowed to kindle one under his hammock, to protect him from the bites of the musquitoes. The cabins of the Brasilians are made nearly in the same manner as those of the Caraibs; being of great dimensions, five or six only compose a considerable village. Each cabin contains from sixty to eighty persons, divided into distinct families.

The Iroquois have been with propriety distinguished by the appellation of *constructors of cabins*, being of all the uncivilized nations on the continent of America, that which is the most commodiously lodged. These cabins are in the form of a bower, five or six fathoms in breadth, high in proportion, and in length according to the number of fires, for each of which a space of twenty-five feet is allotted. Throughout the whole length, and at the end, pickets are planted, which are firmly connected by lines made of the inner bark of trees; on these are fixed, as an outward covering, the bark of the beech or elm-tree, worked together with bands formed of the same materials as the lines. A square, or a parallelogram being thus included, the arch is made with bent poles, which are also covered with bark, and externally se-

cured by other poles bent over it, and interwoven throughout the whole length of the cabin, with young trees split into hoops, whose ends are secured by wooden hooks, disposed along the sides and at each extremity. The middle space within is appropriated for the fire, the smoke ascending through an aperture in the roof, which serves not only for a chimney, but for the admission of light. In bad weather the opening is secured with bark. An elevated platform of twelve or thirteen feet in length, and six in depth, which is used for beds as well as seats, is placed on each side of the fire. On this couch, which is not calculated to promote ease or effeminacy, the natives stretch themselevs without any other covering than the habiliments which they wear during the day. The use of the pillow is known but to few, and they who have seen that article in possession of Europeans accomodate themselves with a billet of wood, with a mat rolled up, or with skins stuffed with hair.

The natives of South America generally make use of hammocks of cotton, or of the interior bark of trees, manufactured with considerable skill. These they suspend in their cabins, and sometimes on the boughs of trees. The inhabitants of this part of the continent are in general of a good stature, and are alert and active when roused from their habitual indolence. The features of their countenances are little different from those of Europeans. Among some peculiarities, there is one in which they differ in general from the natives of the more northern latitudes. They allow their hair to grow to a great length, which in their estimation is a point of beauty. By far the greater numbers wear no cloaths; certain brilliant stones are fixed to the neck. On occasions of ceremony, they attach around the waist a belt composed of feathers of various colours, which produces an agreeable effect. The women wear a kind of shift, called *tepoy*, with short sleeves. They who are most exposed to the weather, or most sensible of the effects of cold, cover themselves with the skins of wild animals, wearing in summer, the fur or hair outwards, and in winter next to the body.

THE MOXES

Under the appellation of Moxes was comprehended an assemblage of several different nations of infidels in South America, to whom it was generally given, because the tribe of the Moxes was the first on that part of the continent, to which the evangelic doctrine of salvation was imparted. These people inhabit an immense tract of country, which stretches from Saint Croix de la Sierra, along the basis of an extensive chain of mountains, lofty and precipitous, which runs from north to south. It is situated under the Torrid Zone, and spreads from the tenth to the

fifteenth degree of south latitude. A considerable portion of this vast territory consists of a plain, which is subject to frequent inundations, for want of sufficient-channels to give issue to the collection of waters, whose abundance is produced by continual rains, by torrents, which at particular seasons descend from the mountains, and by the swelling of rivers, no longer confined to their accustomed barriers. During more than four months of the year, all communication between the inhabitants is impeded by the necessity to which they are driven, of dispersing in search of high situations, in order to avoid the floods, and their cabins are at that period very remote from each other. Besides this inconvenience, they have to encounter that of the climate, whose heat is intense; it is however, at times moderated, partly by the abundance of rain and the overflowings of the rivers, and partly by the north wind which continues to blow throughout a considerable portion of the year. But at other periods, the south wind which sweeps along the sides of the mountains covered with snows, bursts forth with such impetuosity from its barriers, and fills the atmosphere with a degree of cold so piercing, that these people, almost naked, and badly fed, have not strength to sustain this immense change of temperature, this sudden derangement of the seasons, especially when accompanied by inundations, which fail not to generate famine and other awful scourges of the human race.

The dress of the Moxes, which consists of many ridiculous ornaments, adds to the natural wildness of their appearance. They blacken one side of the face, and stain the other with a dirty red colour. Their lips and nostrils are pierced, and a variety of baubles which contribute to render the spectacle yet more hideous, is attached to these organs. Some wear upon the breast a plate of metal, others tie around the body strings of glass beads, mingled with pieces of leather, and the teeth of animals which they have slain in the chace. There are some of these natives who fix upon the girdles the teeth of their enemies whom they have killed in battle, and the greater the number of marks of prowess they can wear, the more respectable are they accounted among their tribes. They are the least disgusting in appearance, who cover the head, the arms, and the knees, with a variety of plumage, which is disposed in an ageeable manner.

THE PATAGONIANS.

The Patagonians seldom exceed in stature the height of six feet, having a large head, square shoulders, and muscular limbs. Following the impulse of nature, and enjoying abundance of aliment, their frame receives all the aggrandisement of which it is capable. Their features are neither hard nor disagreeable and in

many they are pleasing. The visage is round and somewhat flat; the eyes are lively; the teeth, although large, are white; and the hair is worn long, and attached to the summit of the head. Some wear moustaches; some have their cheeks painted red. Their language appears soft, and they exhibit no indications of a ferocious character. Their habiliments consists of a piece of leather fixed about the waist, and a large robe of skin attached around the body, descending to the heels; the part intended for covering the sholders being allowed to fall behind, so that notwithstanding the rigour of the weather, they are usually naked from the girdle upwards. They have a kind of short boots of horses leather, open behind, and some wear round the calf of the leg a ring of copper, of about two inches in breadth.

Their principal food is derived from wild cattle; and when they travel, they fix pieces of flesh to the saddles of their horses. They frequently eat their food raw. Their horses are slender and small, and their dogs are of a feeble breed. They are sometimes reduced to the necessity of drinking sea-water, as springs and rivers are very rare on that part of the coast. This nation seems to lead an erratic life, roaming throughout the vast plains of South America; men, women, and children, are continually on horseback, pursuing the game, or wild animals, with which these territories are covered. They cloath themselves, and form their tents with skins.

THE IROQUOIS.

The habiliments of the Iroquois consist of several pieces, being a kind of tunic, an apron, a robe calculated to cover the whole, and shoes for the feet. The apron is made of skin well dressed, or of European cloth; it passes under the body, and is fixed on either side by a girdle which surrounds the waist. It is usually of sufficient length to fold over at each end, and to hang downwards. The stockings, or leggings, are of skins sewed on the outside, having beyond the seam a double selvage of three inches in breadth, which guards the limbs from being injured by brushing against the underwood and boughs, in passing through the forests. The women wear the same articles of dress, and fix them by garters under the knee; the men attach them by strings to the belt around the waist. These leggings have no feet, but enter into the shoes made of soft leather, generally of deer-skin, and frequently neatly embroidered with the quills of porcupines, stained of different hues. A species of buskin ascending to the calf of the leg, is sometimes worn.

The robe is a kind of blanket of about five or si[illegible] feet [illegible] of the skins of buffaloes, deer, elk, or of sev[illegible] beaver or [illegible] skins sewed together. All the natives in the neighbour-

hood of Europeans, preserve the fashions of their ancient dress, changing the materials only. For the tunic, linen or cotton shirts are worn, and the remainder of the dress is of woollen stuff. The leather of which the shoes are made, is prepared by smoking, and thereby rendered for a time impervious to moisture. They adorn the inside of the skins of buffaloes and of deer, by delineating upon them figures of men and animals painted with black and red colours, and also by working them with porcupine quills, stained with variegated tints. From the borders of some of the smaller lakes and rivers, they procure a species of red paint resembling minium and likewise yellow ochres, which are found near the surface of the ground. With these they ornament their faces and those parts of the body which are uncovered, without bestowing much pains or attention in their application.

A desire of rendering permanent these decorations of the body, suggested the practice of tatooing, or of impressing on the human skin various fantastical figures, first sketched with coal or chalk, and afterwards pricked with the sharpened point of a bone, the punctures being rubbed with whatever colour seems most to please the fancy. These operations are always painful, and often attended with some degree of fever.

The figures thus engraved on the face and body, become distinguishing marks of the individual. When a savage returns from war, and wishes to make known to the tribes through whose territory he passes, a victory which he has gained; when he has made choice of a new situation for hunting, and would signify to others the spot he has marked out, he supplies the deficiency of an alphabet, by the characteristic figures which personally distinguish him; he delineates upon bark which he fixes upon the end of a pole, or cuts with his hatchet upon the trunk of a tree, such hieroglyphics as he conceives sufficient to explain his sentiments.

The natives employ for the purpose of colouring, the juice of particular plants, and the berries of shrubs and trees. They extract, with considerable dexterity, the colours of European cloths, which they transfer to the leather and to the porcupine quills, with which they fabricate their little works.

Many of the North American tribes cut their hair according to different forms: one of the modes is to shave the head, and to leave only a small tuft on the centre. The fashion of trimming the hair, varies in a great degree, and an enemy may by this means be discovered at a considerable distance.

The practice of wearing long hair, prevails, however, among the greater number of the American tribes, and is unquestionably that which nature has pointed out. The ancient Europeans,

and particularly the Gauls, followed that fashion: and the territory of the latter was distinguished by the appellation of *Gallia comata*.

To the first race of monarchs among the Franks, a German people who inhabited the banks of the rivers Maine and Salii, the privilege of wearing long hair was alone permitted, and subjects of every description were limited to the general fashion of the tonsure. The renunciation of all hope of succession to the crown was publicly declared, if a prince of the blood allowed his hair to be cut off.

Before the invasion and conquest of their country by the Tartars, the Chinese wore their hair in its full and natural growth, in the hope that after death they should by that means be conducted to heaven. In the earlier stages of every human association, it appears from the most remote memoirs which can be found, that no covering was worn upon the head. The Jews, the Carthaginians, the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Romans wore no covering in the original state of their societies. The Goths permitted their hair to hang in large curls on their shoulders. The Swabians, a people of Germany, were accustomed to knot their hair, and to attach the extremity to the crown of the head. The Arymphians, however, who formerly frequented the bases of the Riphean mountains, and from whom the Muscovites are descended, practised among both sexes the fashion of shaving the head; to allow the hair to flow in its full natural growth, was considered as infamous.

Red and various other colours, mixed with bear's grease, are by the Americans used for the purpose of tinging the hair, as well as the countenance and body. The Caraibs and other tribes of America between the tropics, after bathing, are attended by their wives who carry calibashes filled with colours mixed with the oil of the palm-tree, particularly rocou, a vegetable red produced from the berries of a tree found in those latitudes, whose effects are extremely baneful to flies.

To denote the chief whom they obey, the Virginians have certain distinguishing characters delineated on their back. In Europe, in the period at which Constantine the Great was emperor of Rome, the people bore upon their shoulders the imperial designation, which was a cross, to indicate the country to which they belonged. Allured by a principle of devotion for the divine founder of their faith, the primitive Christians imprinted on their bodies the figure of the cross. The Brasilians, in order to distinguish their warriors who had destroyed a number of the enemy, cut characteristic figures on their arms and thighs, filling the incisions with a corroding powder.

PEOPLE OF THE WESTERN COAST.

The natives in the vicinity of La Cruz on the western coast of America, are of a clear olive complexion, approaching in some individuals to a white: their features are regular and well formed, their figure is robust, and their address arrogant and bold. The skins of otters, sea-calves, deer, or bears, compose the covering by which their bodies are sheltered from the changes of the elements: these habiliments extend from the neck to the leg, and some persons add to them boots of skins. Their personal ornaments consist of the common appendages of necklaces and bracelets, formed of pieces of copper, or of the teeth of fishes, and of animals slain in the chace. Pendants of mother of pearl, or of copper, dangle from their ears. Their long hair is queued with a species of ribband plaited from the inner filaments of bark, the back bone of a particular fish serving for a comb. The blanket of skins which is used as a covering, they enrich with vegetable or leathern fringes, attached to the lower extremity. The dress of the female extends from the neck to the feet, and the sleeves are of such a length as to reach down to the waist, which is surrounded by a belt. The hair of the women is plaited in tresses, and their countenance, if allowed to retain its natural appearance, would be by no means disagreeable. But an affectation of singularity, which discloses itself in every state of human society, induces the married women, in order to render themselves pleasing to their husbands, although hideous and disgusting to strangers, to divide the lower lip from the chin by a large transverse incision, filled up with a piece of wood, whose diameter at the widest part is nearly an inch, and whose shape is oval; in proportion to the advancement in years, the extension of the orifice is enlarged, and some of the elderly women exhibit an appearance, calculated to inspire the strongest aversion in a spectator. To preserve an opening for the introduction, at a more advanced period of life, of this fantastical instrument of deformity, the females undergo the operation in their infancy, and wear in the wound a small piece of wood, to prevent its borders from reuniting. The married women seem to express much difficulty and embarrassment at the removal of this extraordinary appendage, by the absence of which no additional charms are displayed. This wooden ornament is concave on each side, from two to three inches and a half in length, and at the utmost an inch in width, a groove for the reception of the lips of the artificial mouth, is cut all around the edges.

The huts of the Indians resemble a cone, and are composed of boughs of trees, covered with mats of plaited rushes, or of the interior bark of the elm, or of the birch-tree.

THE TETONS.

The Tetons consist of four tribes, who roam over an immense extent of plains denuded of timber, except on the banks of the river by which these territories are intersected. The land is fertile, and the situation is favourable for culture. The soil is strongly impregnated with salts, alum, copperas and sulphur, and, during the rainy seasons, torrents of water, saturated with these substances, rush down from the more elevated lands, mingle with the stream of the Missouri, and communicate to it a deep brown tint.

THE CANCES.

The Cances are composed of various tribes, occupying different parts of the country, which extends from the bay St. Bernard across the river Grand, towards Vera Cruz. They are unfriendly to the Spaniards, and when an opportunity presents itself, make no scruple of putting to death any of that people. They are expert in the chace, and chiefly make use of the bow. Their habiliments are composed of leather neatly dressed. Those of the women are made in the form of the robe worn by friars, and their heads and feet are alone exposed. Leather pantaloons and a frock of the same material, are worn by the men.

The Hietians, or Comanches, have no fixed habitations, and are divided into several distinct tribes. Their tents are formed in the shape of a cone, of prepared skins, and sufficiently capacious to contain ten or twelve persons; those of the chiefs will hold sometimes to the number of sixty. These tents they pitch, when they halt, in the most exact order, forming regular and parallel lines; when a signal is given for removal, the tents are struck with expedition and dexterity. To every family two horses or mules are allotted, one of which carries the tent, the other, the poles made of red cedar; the tribes travel on horseback. Their horses are strong, docile, and serviceable; when the party halts, these are seldom put at large, but are confined to certain limits, by thongs of leather tied to trees. The men hunt the buffalo on horseback, and kill that animal, either with the bow or with a spear of hard wood. Their persons are strong and athletic, with a tendency to become lusty towards the decline of life. Like several other Indian tribes, they drink the blood of their prey as it flows warm from the body. They are disposed to cleanliness. The women clothe themselves in a long loose robe, extending from the chin to the feet, tied round the waist with a girdle, and ornamented with painted figures. The dress of the men consists of leathern pantaloons, and a shirt of the same substance. As this nation is of an erratic disposition, no attention is paid to agriculture. The country throughout

which they range is extensive, and affords a variety of vegetables, and fruits of spontaneous production. It stretches from the Trinity and Braces, across the Red river to the heads of Akansa and Misouri, to the river Grand, to the vicinity of Santa Fé, and over the dividing ridge towards the Pacific Ocean.

THE DOG-RIBBED INDIANS.

A tribe of natives, who range over a certain tract of country situated on the internal parts of North America, are distinguished by the appellation of the Dog-rib Indians. Their complexion is fairer than that of most of the other inhabitants of this part of the continent, but their person is short, badly proportioned, meagre and unpleasing. The cheeks of the men are tatooed from the nose to the ears with double lines of a blueish tint. Through an aperture formed in the gristle of the nose, part of a quill, or small piece of wood, is introduced: their hair, except on each side, where it is cut, in order to expose the ears, is allowed to remain in its natural growth. Their dress, like that of most of the other natives who have no intercourse with Europeans, is formed of the skins of wild animals, and ornamented with hair and porcupine's quills, of a variety of hues, alternately embroidered in straight, in waving, or in angular borders. Their upper garment guards them from the cold, whether when asleep or awake, and is decorated with a long fringe. Their hands are protected by mittens, suspended by thongs from the neck, and their feet and legs by a species of boot, whose seams are worked with much neatness, care, and ingenuity.

The women wear in warm weather but little covering, and content themselves with tying around the waist a long tassel of leather, whose vibration, when they walk, serves in part to defend them from flies and musquitoes. They fringe with the claws of bears or of wild fowl, perforated at the extremities, and inverted, cinctures of leather, for the head, the waist, and the knees. Pieces of bone or of horn compose their bracelets, and necklaces or gorgets.

These people differ not from the other erratic nations in the construction of their huts, nor in their culinary utensils, or mode of cookery. These vessels are made of excavated pieces of wood, or of bark sewed together, or of wattape, which is the divided roots of the spruce or fir-trees interwoven with a degree of compactness calculated to confine any fluid substance, and containing from two to six gallons. A principal part of the food of these natives is derived from the produce of the rivers, which abundantly water the ungenial and thinly peopled regions through which they flow. A twine, composed of fibres from the integuments of the willow, serves them as the fittest ma-

terial for weaving their nets, which are from thirteen to thirty-six meshes in depth, and from three to forty fathoms in length, and are each calculated for use, agreeably to the depth or extent of the waters. The nets as well as lines, and appendages of ornament, are transported when the natives move from one situation to another, in bags of leather appropriated for that use.

THE KNISTENEAUX.

The Knisteneaux Indians are distinguished by an open and agreeable countenance, a mild and affable address, and by a generous and hospitable disposition. In all their dealings they are scrupulously just. Their language has an affinity to that of the Algonquins. The hair of the head is left by some of the tribes in its natural growth, whilst by others it is cut into various fashions, agreeably to the suggestions of fancy. Their habiliments are nearly the same with those of the natives already described. The women wear a cap made of leather or of cloth, sewed only at the end, which is placed over the forehead, and covering the temples and the ears, is tucked beneath the chin; the extremity of the cap hangs down the back, and is affixed to the girdle. Three perpendicular tatooed lines, not unfrequently double, disfigure the visages of several of the females, the central lines being from the chin to the mouth, those of the sides reach no higher than the corners of the mouth.

THE CHIPEWYAN.

The manners of the Chipeweyan Indians are yet more open and free than those of the tribes of whom we have now given a description. Their disposition appears more moderate and settled; and they are influenced by neither of the alternate extremes of languor nor activity. Their numbers are considerable, and they claim as their territory the tracts extending between the parallels of latitude sixty and sixty-five north, and from one hundred to one hundred and ten degrees of western longitude. Their language is copious, and from the number of emigrant tribes, has branched into a variety of dialects. In warfare they give no quarter, and with indiscriminating vengeance they put all their enemies to death. They spare none of the enemy, either for the purposes of adoption, or for the exercise of deliberate cruelty and torture. The Eskimaux, on whom they make war, are less active and less powerful than themselves, and generally encounter them with much disadvantage. Although more numerous in point of warriors than the Knisteneaux, the Chipeweyans appear to be less courageous, and submit to that people whenever a cause of mutual hostility arises.

In the latitude of fifty-two degrees, on the north-west coast of America, there exists a tribe whose heads are moulded into a wedge like form. Their colour is between the olive and copper, and their faces are broad, with the general characteristic of high cheek bones. The hair is of a less deep black than that of the other inhabitants of this continent, and their eyes are small and grey, intermixed with a reddish tinge. The women wear their hair short; they are inclined to corpulency, and to a swelling in the legs, caused probably by a sedentary mode of life, as they are chiefly engaged in the occupation of spinning, weaving, preparing fish, and nursing their children. The hair of the men is worn tied in knots over the temples, the hind part being combed, and allowed to flow over the shoulders.

The cloathing of the women consists only of a robe, of an apron with fringe, and a round cap, for the head. The men dress themselves nearly in the same fashion, adding in rainy weather a mat with an open in the centre sufficient to admit the head, and which, extending over the back and shoulders, preserves them in a dry state. They procure from the sea and from the neighbouring rivers, the principal part of their sustenance; being therefore in a great degree attached to one settlement: the men are engaged in the more toilsome occupations, and the condition of the women seems to be far less severe and laborious, than among tribes who are dependent on the more precarious produce of the chace.

PEOPLE OF DARIEN, &c.

The natives of Darien and Panama are cloathed in a callico vestment which floats over their shoulders. Upon the thighs a scarf is worn, a ring is affixed to the extremity of the nose, and a collar of teeth surrounds the neck. These articles are not in common use, but are conveyed by the women to the councils, where they are put on. Here the members first move in a dance, after which they seat themselves. One of the young men lights a roll of tobacco previously moistened, that it may not be rapidly consumed; he places one end of it in his mouth, and smokes in the faces of the several councillors, who receive the whiff with peculiar satisfaction, and consider them as tokens of high respect.

The natives of Yucatan are yet more addicted to an inclination for ornament; they carry about with them mirrors of polished stone; upon these they frequently direct their eyes, and take a singular pleasure in contemplating and adorning their heads and faces. Among the Panches, a tribe of new Grenada, the distinction of wearing ornaments was permitted to warriors alone.

THE CARAIBS.

The Caraibs are of a stature rather above the common height, they are well made and proportioned, and their features are agreeable. Their eyes are black and naturally small, but the figure and disposition of the forehead makes them appear of a proportionate size. Their teeth are in general white and regularly arranged, their hair is long, flowing, and black. The colour of their skin is olive, but they communicate to it a red tinge, by means of rocou dipt in oils, which serves them not only for dress, but for a defence against the attacks of flies and musquitoes, which have an antipathy to the smell of this colour, and which, without this precaution, would become an insupportable torment. When they go to war expeditions, to a festival, or to perform some visit which they deem of consequence, their wives are employed to make them whiskers, and several black stripes on the countenance and on the body. These marks remain for many days. The whole of the men wear around their waist a small cord, in which a Dutch knife is fixed with the blade uncovered, and touching the thigh; it likewise sustains a piece of cloth six inches wide, which hangs a considerable way down both behind and before. The male children of ten or twelve years of age, have nothing upon the body, except the band in order to contain the knife, which however, they frequently hold in the hand. Their physiognomy is tinctured with melancholy; they are reputed inoffensive whilst unprovoked; but if they receive an injury, they are implacable and vindictive. They are much addicted to the use of intoxicating liquors.

The women are not so tall in proportion as the men, but are of a fulness of habit, and well shaped. The contour of their visage is round, the mouth small, the teeth white. Their manners are more gay, more open and agreeable, than those of the men; they at the same time preserve an air of modest reserve and decorum. Like the men, they adorn themselves with paint, but in a stile more uniform and simple. The hair is attached behind the head with a line of cotton. They wear around the waist a piece of cotton cloth, worked and embroidered with minute grains of shells of different colours, decorated in the lower part with fringe of three inches in depth. The *camisa*, a name applied to this article of dress, is eight or ten inches in length, and about five in breadth, besides the fringe. At each extremity there is a small cord of cotton, to keep it attached to the body. They in general wear necklaces of shells of various hues and sizes, which in double rows hang down upon the bosom; the bracelets for the arms and wrists are composed of the same materials, and their ear-rings are of blue stones or shells. The infants of both sexes

wear bracelets, and a girdle of porcelain around the middle of the body.

A part of dress peculiar to the women, consists of a kind of buskin of cotton, about four or five inches in height, reaching somewhat higher than the ancle. When girls attain the age of ten or twelve years, they assume the *camisa* instead of the girdle; and the mother, or some other near relation, fabricates the buskin for the legs, which is never removed until absolutely worn out, or torn by accident. It is so closely woven to the leg, that the calf thereby acquries more thickness and solidity than it would naturally possess. The extremities of the buskin have each a border of about half an inch wide, which in the upper part is double, and so strong, that it retains its outward form, and has a handsome appearance.

When girls are thus attired, they no longer live in familiarity with the males; they constantly accompany their mothers, and assume a greater degree of reserve. It is seldom a female attains this period of life without being engaged to a young man, who, from the time he has revealed his inclination for her, considers her as his future spouse. They marry in any degree of consanguinity, except that of sister or daughter; and pretend that the nearer the ties of blood are before marriage, the more permanent the felicity of that state will prove. Their wives are retained in a condition of servitude, and whatever regard the husbands may entertain towards them, it extends not to any relaxation of the toilsome offices which they are obliged to perform, nor of that respect which is exacted from them. Wives are not permitted to eat with their husbands, nor even in their presence.

Many of the natives pierce the cartilage between the nostrils, and suspend from thence porcelain, or silver ornaments. The women always wear long hair, divided from the centre of the crown towards each side, and falling loose upon the back, or plaited and tied into a long club. The oils with which both sexes anoint themselves, communicate an offensive odour; but this practice is indispensibly necessary to guard the skin against the swarms of flies and insects, with which, during the summer months the regions in North America are incessantly infested. In tropical countries, these torments of the human race suspend at no time their goading attacks. Some of the men have their ears slit, when young, weights being suspended to the lower extremity, in order to lengthen them; ornaments of silver or porcelain are fixed to the apertures, and hang down upon the shoulders. The same kind of trinkets are strung in a necklace, to which a breast-plate is supended. Some of the warriors wear long tails, reaching from the crown of the head more than half way down the back, and interwoven with porcelain, or chains of silver, or round

plates of the same metal, of various sizes. A tobacco pouch of the skin of some animal, a pipe, a knife, and a tomahawk, form other appendages of their dress. They make caps for the head, of the skins of birds, the beak being placed towards the front, and the wings on each side.

Among every uncivilized people upon earth, it is the peculiar misfortune of the female sex to be degraded and despised, and to be loaded with the most laborious and toilsome duties. The men conceive themselves formed soley for the occupations of the chace and of warfare, and glorying in the display of strength and courage, the only qualities entitled to pre-eminence among savages, they consider the females as greatly inferior to themselves, and fitted only to discharge offices of domestic drudgery.

It must, however, be confessed that in situations where food can be procured without much bodily exertion, the treatment of the women becomes more mild. The men assist in alleviating the burden of their toils; they are regarded with some degree of estimation; and they acquire a wish to conciliate the affections, and a taste for dress and ornament.

When tribes are attached to certain situations, and are united in villages, it is the peculiar province of the women to cultivate the ground, and to plant maize and other herbs, in which tobacco, a most essential article among all the natives of America, is included. In the more northern climates, as soon as the earth becomes divested of the load of snow by which, for nearly half the year, its surface is concealed, the women betake themselves to their labour in the fields, which they first clear from all weeds and rubbish, by collecting these in heaps, and burning them. They afterwards loosen the soil with a wooden harrow, which scratches it to a small depth, and form hillocks at a little distance from each other, in each of which are deposited a few grains of Indian corn. Beans, pompkins, and water melons, are likewise planted. This was the utmost extent of their agriculture, as they had no metal utensils for that purpose, and were totally ignorant of the mode of subduing wild animals, and of rendering them subservient to the purposes of man. Before the arrival of Europeans amongst them, they were, in this esential respect, unconcious of the superiority of their nature. Over no one species of the animal creation, the dog excepted, was their authority established; every other they allowed to range in full possession of its native freedom.

The mode of life pursued by the savages, renders, however, the aid to be derived from the strength of animals but little necessary. It is only when man has attained a considerable degree of improvement in society, that he learns to estimate the value

of the stronger animals, by employing them to simplify and alleviate human labour.

When the time of harvest arrives, the women pluck with the hand the Indian corn, tie it by its leaves in bunches, and suspend it to be dried by the sun. It is afterwards stored in pits, dug in the sides of a declivity, and lined with mats. It is thus preserved uninjured by moisture, and from being consumed by vermin. This constitutes a material part of the food of many of the northern sedentary tribes. A further office of the women is to grind the corn when dried, into a coarse flour, by means of stones, or of wooden utensils: and to fan it, that it may be freed from particles of chaff. When boiled and mixed with grease or similar substances, it is called *sagamité*. A quantity of this food is every morning prepared for breakfast of the families. Before the use of iron or of copper kettles was introduced among some of the natives, the absence of these utensils was supplied by a vessel formed of clay, of a spherical shape, and wide at top, which having been dried in the sun, was afterwards hardened in a slow fire made with bark. The viands were cooked by throwing into the vessel a number of stones made red-hot, which by degrees raised the water to a boiling temperature. Their meat and their fish they generally roast or broil upon the charcoal of wood.

INDIAN FESTIVALS.

Feasts are frequent among the savages; on these occasions they consider it a point of honor, not only to produce all the provision in their possession, but generally to consume the whole. The abundance which generally prevails at these assemblies are not favourable to the accumulation of stores for future subsistence, and the necessity to which, in consequence, they are frequently reduced, compels them to eat without discrimination, every species of food which accident may throw within their reach. The dried intestines of animals they eat without any other preparation. The oil of bears, of seals, of porpoises, and of other fish, whether in a fresh or rancid state, form a part of their food. They are strangers to the use of salt or pepper, or of any other species of seasoning. The flesh of dogs is for them a luxurious repast. The Algonquins and other tribes who do not practise agriculture, are often reduced to a yet greater degree of wretchedness, and are necessitated to eat the interior bark of trees, and a species of moss, nourished in the crevices of rocks, denominated by the Canadians, *tripe de rocher*. Besides Indian corn and other plants, which the natives who cultivate the soil use for their food a kind of bread is made of the seed of the sun-flower, which contains a species of oil. As the lands are neither ma-

nured, nor allowed to remain fallow, their fertility becomes in time exhausted. To remedy this inconvenience, the savages make choice of fresh situations for their villages, and clear new lands from the woods with which they are covered. Another cause contributes also to urge them to a change, particularly where the severity of the climate during winter requires a large consumption of firewood, an article from which they become more remote the longer they remain in a fixed situation. To trace out the extent of the new ground, and to remove the trees, becomes the peculiar task of the men. Although Europeans have instructed them in the use of the axe and saw, yet they seldom avail themselves of these tools, preferring their original mode of stripping the trees of their bark not far from the roots, and when the trunk is somewhat dried, of placing fire around it. Their axes were made of a very hard stone of a greenish hue, which it required much labour and perseverance to reduce to a sharp edge.

The vine grows wild in America, but the natives no where cultivate that plant, being ignorant of the process of converting into wine the juice of its fruits. Their disposition to intoxication is so powerful, that they would, doubtless, have otherwise availed themselves of the use of that beverage, there being many climates on that continent favourable for the culture of vineyards.

The people of South America, and also the Mexicans, possess the knowledge of extracting from certain roots, grains, and fruits, strong and intoxicating liquors.

Tobacco is much used upon all occasions by the savages, who conceive that they derive sustenance from chewing or smoking it The acids of the stomach may thereby, indeed, be weakened, and the sensations of hunger rendered less powerful, but it cannot certainly afford any real degree of nourishment.

In the Mexican empire, where distinction of ranks, and a separation of crafts had taken place, the greater part of the lower orders of people wore no garment. A piece of square cotton attached to the neck and shoulders was the only mantle with which the emperor himself, and the nobles, were covered. A shift with half sleeves, open at the bosom, and falling to the knees, formed the whole apparel of the lower class of women. Their houses were built of earth, dried bricks, and sometimes of stone, covered with pieces of wood, without doors or windows, except a small aperture at the entrance, and their height was limited to seven or eight feet from the ground; mats were spread upon the floors within, and although the inhabitants could procure oil and wax, and were not unacquainted with their use, as applied to the support of light, they employed no other illu-

mination than burning torches of fir-wood. They generally sat upon the ground, and took their victuals in that posture; they had, notwithstanding, seats formed of bags filled with the leaves of the palm-tree; their beds were of grass, with coverlets of cotton. Their principal article of food, like that of many of the more northern nations, consisted of maize or Indian corn, ground, and made into a paste, which they mixed with other substances, such as grease or oils, or particular herbs. Their drink was sometimes cocoa diluted with hot water, and seasoned with pimento or honey. They were prohibited, under the most rigid penalties, the use of intoxicating liquors, which could be drank only by particular permission, granted to the sick and to the aged. On certain public solemnities, and when the people were occupied on the public works, a quantity of liquor, proportionate to his age, was allowed to each person: intoxication was branded as the most shameful of human vices, and persons found in that condition were punished by the demolition of of their dwellings, by shaving their heads in public, and if they enjoyed any office under the emperor, by being dismissed from the service, and pronounced incapable of any future employment.

THE IROQUOIS.

Of all the nations of Canada, the Iroquois are not only the most civilized, but the most ingenious and prudent. They reap every summer a much greater quantity of grain than is sufficient for the consumption of one year, and sometimes of double that period. After a certain preparation to guard it from putrefaction, they deposit the grain in pits of considerable depth, dug in situations where the soil is perfectly free from moisture. They are therefore seldom reduced to extremity, neither are they entirely dependent on the success of the chace. No inconsiderable advantage in warfare is likewise derived from this prudential conduct.

The degree of culture around the villages of the Iroquois was found, on the expedition of Sullivan in 1779, to be considerably higher than could be supposed, from former observations and opinions relative to the customs and manners of that people. The beauty of their situation indicating, in many instances, choice and design, together with the size, the construction, and the neatness of their dwellings, were the first objects of admiration to the colonial army in this new country. Many of the houses were built of frame-work. The corn fields were of considerable extent; and the Americans destroyed in this expedition one hundred and sixty thousand bushels of grain. But the number of fruit-trees which they found, and cut down, with the size

and antiquity of their orchards, exhibited an object of yet greater wonder. It is asserted that fifteen hundred fruit-trees were destroyed in one orchard, some of which carried the appearance of great age. In this expedition no less than forty Indian towns were burnt, of which, Genesee, the largest, contained one hundred and twenty-eight houses.

The predominating virtue in the bosom of a savage is a sincere and unalienable attachment to the tribe among whom he was born. For the welfare and protection of it he will forego every enjoyment, and freely surrender his existence as a sacrifice. This principle of affection arises not, in the present instance, from a sense of reason or of duty, but is the secret operation of the hand of nature, which rivets the inclinations of mankind to those friends, and to those objects, from whence the infancy of the dawning mind imbibed its earliest impressions.

The prepossession in favour of their native soil is, among civilized people, not merely constitutional, but is fortified by reason, as well as education and habit. They who travel into distant countries experience for a time the powerful influence of this attachment. The desire to revisit their native land operates so forcibly on the minds of some men, as to produce real indisposition. This, like other similar propensities, is too deep rooted to be subdued by argument, or even by the lapse of time.

This regard for country, which in former ages, as well as in modern times, has been productive of the most dignified virtues, is not less prevalent among the inhabitants of the new, than among those or the ancient hemisphere. In the memorable struggles which the Mexicans made against the Spaniards on the invasion of their native land, extraordinary efforts of valour and patience were displayed. After every ineffectual trial of resistance, which the dictates of just revenge, aided by resolution, could inspire, the Peruvians, although distracted by intestine broils submitted with reluctance to the Spanish yoke.

THE CHILIANS.

The Chilians, who inhabit the western coast of South America, have hitherto maintained against the Spaniards an almost incessant warfare, nor has the courage of the present Barbarians, degenerated from that of their progenitors. By the introduction amongst them of the European horse, and by the rapid multiplication of that animal, of whose utility to man they have acquired the perfect knowledge of availing themselves, they have become more than ever formidable. The numerous herds of cattle and other animals, to whose increase the climate and soil have been

less favourable that to that of horses, supply them with ample sources of subsistence.

The freedom of manners and the uncertainty of life, from the various hazards to which it is inevitably exposed, imparts to the character of savages a species of liberality, under which are couched many benevolent principles: a respect for the aged, and several instances a deference to their equals. The natural coldness of their temperament, admits of few outward demonstrations of civility. They are, however, affable in their mode, and are ever disposed to shew towards strangers, and particularly towards the unfortunate, the strongest marks of hospitality. A savage will seldom hesitate to share with a fellow-creature oppressed by hunger, his last morsel of provision.

Numerous are the defects which contribute to counterbalance these laudable propensities in the disposition of savages. Caprice, volatility, indolence beyond expression, ingratitude, suspicion, treachery, revenge, cruelty to their enemies, brutality in their enjoyments, are the evil qualities by which they are weighed down.

They are, however, strangers to that restless versatility of fashion, which, while it contributes to enliven, torments at the same time a state of polished society. They are ignorant of those refinements in vice, which luxury, and superfluity, and satiety have engendered.

It appears somewhat unaccountable, that, possessing capacity and address to execute with neatness and dexterity many little works which are peculiar to themselves, so many ages should have elapsed, without the invention of any of those arts, which in other parts of the world have been carried to a high perfection. This disregard of improvement, ought not perhaps to be imputed to them as a great defect. They have frequently expressed sentiments of surprise, that Europeans should construct edifices, and undertake works intended to endure for ages, whilst existence is so limited and insecure, that they might not live to witness the completion of their enterprize. Their natural indolence is an effect of apathy, and induces them the rather to forego the advantages which they might envy us, than give themselves the trouble necessary to procure them. From whatever source, however, this aversion to innovation may proceed, certain it is, that since their acquaintance with Europeans, the prospect of advantage to be derived from thence, has not in any degree tended to promote their industry. They have evinced a decided attachment to their ancient habits, and have *gained* less from means which might have smoothed the asperities of their condition, than they have *lost* by copying the vices of those, who exhibited to their view the arts of civilization.

CHARACTER OF THE AMERICAN FEMALES.

It has already been remarked, that among associations which have made but little advancement in the arts of life, the condition of women is servile and degraded. The men alone may be said to be properly free, and the women, invested with the most laborious and domestic employments, are almost universally their slaves. In the women, notwithstanding, the property of the tribe, the distinction of blood, the order of generation, and the preservation of lineal descent, are, by several of the northern tribes, reputed to be inherent. In them is vested the foundation of all real authority. They give efficiency to the councils, are the arbiters of peace or war, and the keepers of the public stock. The country, the fields and their produce, belong to them alone. It is to their disposal that the captive slaves are committed. The rearing and educating infants to a certain age, is their peculiar province; they are consulted in all marriages, and in their blood is founded the order of succession.

The men, on the contrary, seem to form a distinct class among themselves; their children are strangers to them, and when they die, every thing they possessed is destroyed, or is deposited with their bodies in the tomb. The family and its privileges remain with the women. If males only are left in a family, and should their number, and that of the nearest male relatives be ever so great, the race becomes nominally extinct. Although by custom the leaders are chosen from among the men, and the affairs which concern the tribe are settled by a council of ancients; it would yet seem that they only represented the women, and assisted in the discussion of subjects which principally related to that sex.

Among the Iroquois, marriages are formed in such a manner, that the parties leave not their relatives and their cabin to have a separate dwelling and family, but each remains as before, and the children produced from the marriage, belonging to the mother, are accounted solely of her cabin or family. The property of the husband is kept apart from that of the wife, and the females inherit in preference to the males. The consideration of the children being dependent entirely on the mother, and forming the future hope of the nation, was the real cause, among many tribes, of the women having in a political sense, acquired a degree of consequence superior to that of their husbands. Like the Lycians, the Iroquois and Hurons take their family names from the women, who alone are charged with preserving the race of their ancestors, by transmission to their children, of the name born by themselves. When a warrior dies, the appellation by which he was distingished is buried in his grave,

and is not renewed until the lapse of several years. The savages in addressing each other, seldom make use of their adopted name. They apply even to strangers the titles of kindred, such as brother, sister, uncle, nephew, and cousin, observing the distinctions of subordination, and the relative proportions of age between themselves and the persons whom they accost.

The practice of marrying a plurality of wives, is more generally prevalent among the natives of the southern, than among those of the more northern parts of America. The Hurons and the Iroquois restrict themselves to one wife; and what appears singular, polygamy, which is not permitted to the men, is extended to the women among the Tsonnonthouans, where many instances occur of one female having two husbands.

In the nation of the Algonquins, where two wives are permitted to one husband, the one is considered of a rank superior to the other, and her children alone are accounted legitimate. They both inhabit the same cabin with the husband.

The custom of marrying more than one wife, is no where to be met with among nations in a state of refinement; and the rules of virtue, as well as the precepts of the Christian religion, tend to its prohibition. Wherever it prevails the women are less valued, and their mode of education is calculated to retain them in a state of mental darkness

In regular and limited governments, where property is secured to the possessors, legitimacy of descent becomes a consideration of the highest and most essential importance. In proportion, therefore, as their conduct is regulated by propriety and virtue, women are held in estimation. The passion of love is of too delicate a nature to admit of divided affections, and its real influence can scarcely be felt in societies where polygamy is tolerated. That refined impulse of tender and respectful attachment, the offspring of sentiment, is productive of the most exalted gratifications of civilized life, and its absence can by no means be compensated by the libertinism of Barbarians, nor by the unrestrained indulgence of Mahometans.

The Alpalachites of North America were permitted to marry in every degree of consanguinity next to that of brother and sister. Their children usually bore names which tended to commemorate the exploits of their fathers; those of the enemies they had slain in battle, or of villages which they had burnt, were transferred to their sons. Among the inhabitants of New Mexico polygamy is allowed, but those of Cibola take only one wife. The natives of California inflict on the persons who are guilty of the crime of adultery, a capital punishment. The women mourn six months for the death of their husbands, and are permitted to re-marry at the expiration of that period. The

custom of espousing a plurality of wives prevails among the natives of Darien, and the husbands have the privilege of selling their partners, whenever they cease to be agreeable. Prostitution before marriage is said to be frequent; but as pregnancy in that state would be deemed ignominous, every endeavour is practised to counteract it. Attachment to each other by mutual affection is not necessary for forming engagements between the sexes; their gallantry extends no farther than to a proposal of marriage on the part of the man, or of the woman; and it is considered no mark of forwardness in the latter openly to avow her inclination. A present is brought to the door of the cabin of the bridegroom, by each guest invited to the marriage. The parties are conducted by their fathers into the cabin, the father of the bridegroom commencing the ceremony by an oration. He holds in his hand a bow, and arrows with the points directed towards the young couple; he dances until he becomes heated and fatigued, and afterwards kneeling down, presents his son to the bride, whose father also performs the same gestures which were already exhibited. When the ceremony is concluded, a party of men immediately begin to cut down trees, and to clear a spot, where they plant a quantity of Indian corn for the provision of the new married persons.

Although polygamy is permitted among the Moxes, it seldom happens that a man takes more than one wife at a time, his natural indolence rendering him incapable of supporting two. Incontinence in a married state is here considered as a crime of the first enormity; and if a woman is so forgetful of her duty as to be unfaithful to her husband, she is reputed as infamous, and is frequently punished with death.

A total disregard of external forms seems to prevail in the celebration of marriages among the Moxes. The whole ceremony consists in the mutual consent of the relations of the parties, and in some presents made on the part of the intended husband to the father, or to the nearest connection of her whom he is to espouse. Reciprocal regard is by no means deemed essential. After marriage, the husband follows his wife to whatever spot or situation she may chuse to inhabit.

Among some other natives of South America, the Caciques or chiefs are permitted to have several wives, whilst all the other members of their community are allowed to possess only one. But should they be dissatisfied with their wives, they can repudiate them, and make another choice. A father consents not to the marriage of his daughter, until her lover has given unequivocal proofs of his address and courage. He betakes himself to the chace, kills as much game as he is able, brings it to the entrance of the cabin, where she whom he is to espouse resides,

and retires in silence. By the species and the quantity of game, the parents form a judgement of his talents and of his merit. An inhuman practice prevails among some of these nations; when a mother who has young children, dies, they are put to death and interred with her; and when a woman is delivered of twins, she destroys one of them, assigning for a reason, that she cannot nourish two children at the same time.

In Peru, marriage between persons in the first degree of consanguinity in the direct line, or even in the collateral, was never permitted except to the Incas, the legitimate heirs of the empire, and the sovereign alone espoused his own sister. The vanity of those princes, who considered themselves little inferior to divinities, induced them to establish this law, to the exclusion of the rest of the family, that the race of the Sun might always be more pure in the blood of the monarch. The Inca Garcilasso de la Vege pretends that this law was as ancient as the monarchy, and that it had been instituted by Manco Capac, the founder of the Peruvian empire. Acosta, on the contrary, attributes it to one of the latest kings, and, with a zeal dictated by religious, but perhaps more by interested motives, in wishing to extenuate the cruelties inflicted by his countrymen on this innocent people, says, that it drew upon the royal family, and upon the different branches of the empire, the wrath of Heaven, which delivered them over a prey to the Spaniards, the instruments of its vengeance.

The Caraibs, among whom a plurity of wives is permitted to an unlimited degree, have a right to espouse their cousins by the mother's side, who are considered as betrothed the moment they are born. The marriage does not, however, take place without the consent of the parents, and is considered as an obligation of so trivial a nature, that it may at any time be dispensed with on the part of the women.

With respect to the degree of consanguinity in matrimonial engagements, the Iroquois are more scrupulous. The ties of blood in the family of the mother are reputed so strong, that relations reared in the same cabin canot marry among themselves, unless they be so remote as to be no otherwise connected than by being members of the community.

An attention less strict, with respect to the ties of affinity, prevails among the Algonquins, who espouse without ceremony several sisters, and when one is pregnant, successively cohabit with the others, it being the general practice of these natives not to visit their wives when they are declared to be in a state of pregnancy.

Among the Jews, when a husband died, leaving no issue by

his wife, it was, in some cases, incumbent on the unmarried brother of the husband, if such there was, to espouse the widow. Among the Arabians a practice prevailed which was much more abhorrent to nature, and afterwards branded with general detestation. Sons not unfrequently married the widows of their fathers, provided they were not their own mothers. The practice of espousing stepmothers appears to have been prevalent in Scotland so late as the eleventh century, and is supposed by Lord Hailes to have originated from motives of interest, that the estate might be exonerated from the payment of a jointure.

The ancient Persians entertained a persuasion that they who were married enjoyed a peculiar degree of happiness in a future state, and therefore, frequently hired persons to be espoused to such of their relations as had died in a state of celibacy.

An institution of a very singular nature, but probably to serve political views, was, by Jengiz Khan, introduced, or revived, among the Moguls and Tartars. The ceremony of uniting in wedlock young men and women who had long been dead, was frequently performed, and hostile tribes were, by these imaginary means, sometimes reconciled to each other, when every other mode of pacification had been attempted in vain. This ideal contract was regarded with superstitious veneration, and any breach of treaty, where it had taken place, was considered as drawing on themselves the vengeance of these departed spirits.

The Iroquois, the Hurons, and other nations among whom polygamy is not in use, espouse, after the death of their first wife, one of her sisters; they of the family of the deceased failing not to propose to the husband this fresh alliance, especially if they have been satisfied with his conduct during the first marriage. The same custom is followed with respect to a widow, and the brothers of her deceased husband.

The state of marriage is not entered into, on the part of the man, at an early period of life. His assistance in the chace being useful to the cabin or family in which he dwelt, it was, doubtless, with regret that he was permitted to form an alliance, which would alienate his services and the fruits of his industry. The men, however, were generally so much attached to the family in which they had been reared, and of which they were members, that they seldom discovered any impatience to forsake it, by forming, in wedlock, a new engagement; and the habit of their marrying at an advanced period of life may be attributed, perhaps, more to their own inclination than to interested motives on the part of those among whom they resided.

The passion of love, feeble unless aided by imagination, is of

a nature too refined to acquire a great degree of influence over the mind of savages. Their erratic mode of life, their dependance for support on the precarious supplies which the chace affords, and their natural disposition to indolence, tend in a great degree to abate the ardour for the sex. This impulse, which bestows energy and comfort on mankind, they possess in a much fainter degree than the inhabitants of the eastern hemisphere. Many of the Indians are, notwithstanding, subject to jealousy, and often carry that passion to fatal extremes. The females appear, however, to be much more sensible of tender impressions.

It is common among the Iroquois, for a man who intends to marry, to leave to the principal matron, or to some of his own relations, the selection of his future spouse. The choice having been fixt, and the consent of the female procured, a proposal is made to her relations, who hold a consultation upon the occasion, and should it be agreeable, delay to return a positive answer. The marriage being resolved on, the friends of the bridegroom send to the cabin of the young woman, a present consisting of porcelain, peltry, some blankets of skins, and other useful articles of furniture, which are intended for the parents or near relations of the bride, with whom no dowry is demanded. When the presents are accepted, the marriage ceremony is considered to be concluded, and the contract to be passed. Men advanced in years frequently espouse young girls, as being more easily moulded to their own disposition.

In Mexico, marriages were celebrated by the authority of the priests, and an instrument was drawn up, specifying the particulars of the wife's fortune, which the husband, in case of separation, was by law obliged to return. When the articles were fully arranged, the parties went to the temple, where they communicated to the sacrificing priest the tenor of their resolutions. He thereupon laid hold of a corner of the woman's veil, and of the husband's mantle, and tied them together, to indicate that they should remain ieseparable. They afterwards approached a fire kindled for the purpose, which was considered as the mediator of all family discontents. Having followed the priest in procession seven times around it, they seated themselves, in order to be equally warmed by its heat, which was conceived to give perfection to matrimony. In the early part of the night, the bride, conducted by a matron accompanied by some others of her sex, with each a torch in her hand, went to her husband's abode, where a marriage festival was prepared. Among the inhabitants of Nicaragua, the priest, in performing the ceremony of marriage, takes the parties by the little finger, and leads them

to a fire which is kindled for the occasion. He instructs them in their duty, and in such particular conduct as he thinks requisite to be observed by them in the transition from the one state to the other. When the fire becomes extinguished, the parties are looked upon as husband and wife.

Among the Tlascalans, it was the practice to shave the heads of the new-married couple, to denote that all youthful sports ought in that state to be abandoned. In a neighbouring province of the Mexican empire, it was customary to carry the bridegroom, that he might be supposed to marry against his inclination. Among the natives of the province of Panuco, a husband purchased his wife, and the father did not speak to his son-in-law during the first year of the marriage. The husband and wife abstained from all kind of commerce with each other for the space of two years after the birth of their first child.

The Macatecas, another tribe subject to the Mexican empire, fasted, prayed, and sacrificed to their gods for the space of twenty days after their marriage, and likewise drew from themselves blood, with which they sprinkled their idols.

The mutual consent of both parties was all that was required for a separation among the Mexicans. The young men were retained by the father, and the young women by the mother, and were, on pain of death, prohibited from a re-union. A statute, whose penalties were so severe, rendered divorces unfrequent. Female chastity was held in great estimation, and a deviation from it was regarded as highly criminal.

In new Grenada, where polygamy is allowed, the ties of consanguinity are respected. The Cacique has usually a greater number of wives than any of the people, and his successors are chosen from among the children of her to whom he was the most attached.

The Caribanians indulged the practice of polygamy to its utmost extent, and a Cacique distributed his wives into different parts of the country. Feasting and dancing was introduced at the marriage ceremony, and the hair of the parties was cut off. The bride was obliged to pass the first night with the priest, as a form essentially necessary to constitute the legality of the marriage. If that part was omitted she was considered only as a concubine.

Among the natives of America, it does not appear customary for a father to bestow any portion with his daughter. The practice of receiving a dower with a wife, which is not always productive of felicity in wedlock, prevails in a great degree in societies that have made considerable progress in the arts of civilization, and in a taste for luxury.

The Athenian legislator, with a view to preseve regularity and domestic happiness among his countrymen, prescribed that no portions should be given with women on their marriage. Avarice on the part of the husband, and a sense of independence on that of the wife, might be conceived to be inimical to the welfare and tranquillity of a married state.

The marriage ceremony among some of the northern tribes, usually concludes with a feast, in which is exhibited a profusion of every species of food most in esteem among the natives, and the assembly is always numerous. The song, the dance, and other amusements, contribute to vary the occupations of the day. At night, all the relatives of the bridegroom withdraw, excèpting four of the eldest, who remain to accompany him. The bride is attended by a like number of aged females, one of whom presents her to her husband; the couple then standing upon a mat, hold the end of a rod placed horizontally between them, whilst the oldest man present delivers a short harrangue. In this attitude they alternately address each other, and sing and dance together, keeping hold of the rod, which is afterwards broken into as many pieces as there are witnesses present, to each of whom a piece is distributed. On the conclusion of the ceremony, the bride is led out by young women, who re-conduct her to the cabin of her father, where her husband occasionally visits her, until her first child is born; on this event her effects are carried to the cabin of her spouse, in which she afterwards continues to reside.

Mutual separation takes place whenever it is the wish of the parties, who generally give a week's previous notice, each of them assigning reasons. The small pieces of rod which were distributed among the relations, are collected and brought to the place where the ceremony of marriage was performed, to be there consumed in the presence of the husband and wife. These divorces are effected without dispute, quarrel, or contradiction. The women become equally at liberty with the men, to remarry when they are inclined. The children forming the wealth of the savage tribes, are, at the period of separation, equally divided between the father and mother. Should the number be unequal, the greatest share falls to the mother. Although the privilege of changing is unrestricted, there are many savages who have never had more than one wife.

In many parts of Asia, temporary marriages are common, and are contracted by means of a written indenture witnessed by the Cadhi; on the expiration of the term, a certain sum is paid to the woman, and the engagement thus becomes dissolved. The children are not accounted lawful, and cannot succeed to any inheritance.

Of some of the nations of South America, the men always sleep and live together in the same cabin: this practice extends even to those who are married, who cannot enter the cabins where their wives reside, but under the obscurity of night. Their ancient customs did not permit them to speak to the relations of the spouse. They took every means of avoiding them, as if the alliance contracted had been injurious, and they had something to apprehend from their resentment.

The new married couple, in the Iroquois tribes, belonging always to the cabin of their respective mothers, the families contract new obligations towards each other, on account of the alliance. The wife is not only bound to give food to her husband, to cook his provisions when he sets out on expeditions, but likewise to assist those of his family when they cultivate their fields, and to provide wood for the fires, during an allotted period. All the women of her own family, assisted by a great part of those of the village, carry to the husband's cabin several bundles of wood, intermixed with small and short pieces. The wife, to recompense such as have aided her in this toil, suspends a kettle over the fire, and distributes from thence a large portion of boiled maize to each person. This formality prevails only among the more stationary tribes of North America, and is termed the *nuptial wood*.

It becomes the office of the husband in his turn, to make a mat, to repair the cabin of his wife, or to construct a new one. The produce of his hunting expeditions, during the first year of marriage, belongs of right to his wife; he afterwards shares it equally with her, whether she remains in the village, or accompanies him to the chace.

The Hurons, whose customs are in many respects similar to those of the Iroquois, are much more irregular in their conduct. When the former were defeated by the latter, those prisoners who were incorporated with the society of the conquerors, could never venture to propose at Agniers, or at Tsonnonthouan, a festival of debauch which they celebrated in their country, afraid of exciting disgust in the Iroquois, whose minds were not sufficiently corrupted to tolerate such a spectacle. Although their morals have since declined, and they are become less scrupulous with respect to the observance of chastity, they preserve, however, many of the exterior requisites of decorum. Their language is chaste, and possesses appropriate terms. In their mode of dress they preserve an inviolable regard for decency. The young women studiously avoid speaking in public with persons of a different sex, whose conversation would not fail to render them suspected. They walk with much seeming modesty; and, except the women that are totally abandoned, they are sedu-

lously vigilant to preserve their reputation, afraid that they would otherwise forfeit all hope of an establishment by marriage.

None of the native tribes in America are populous; the smallness of their numbers may be attributed to their mode of existence, and to a principle in their nature which cherishes not a disposition to multiply. Their desolate and joyless condition, is productive of a proportionate depression of spirit. The length of time employed by the women in rearing their children, whom they nourish for three or four years, during which period they cohabit not with their husbands; the excessive fatigue they undergo, together with the practice among many tribes of licencing prostitution before marriage, and the misery and want to which they are frequently reduced, contribute also to render their state unpropitious to the impulse of love, and combine to produce sterility.

The nations among which prostitution is allowed before marriage, alledge in its justification, that a young woman is mistress of her person, and a free agent. When, however, she enters into a state of wedlock, she becomes the property of the man whom she has espoused and resigns her liberty.

The ancient Thracians entertained, with respect to the chastity of women before marriage, the same indifference as some of the American tribes, and like them also considered as an unpardonable offence, the violation of conjugal fidelity.

The celebration of marriage among the Peruvians, took place in the following public manner. The Inca, in whose person were vested the highest dignities, of chief priest of the sun, and king of men, convocated annually at Cusco, all the marriageable young men and maidens of his family. The stated age for the former was twenty-four years, for the latter that of eighteen. They were not permitted to marry at an earlier period, as they were conceived in that case incapable of regulating their families. The Inca being seated, the parties who had agreed on their union, stood one by the other around him. After calling them by name, he joined their hands, exacted from them a promise of mutual fidelity, and delivered them to their parents. The celebration of the wedding, which was held at the house of the bridegroom's father, continued for two or three days. Such marriages among that class were alone denominated lawful. The sons and daughters of citizens were married by priests, according to the division of the several districts in higher and lower Cusco.

The moveables and utensils for the house of the new married

couple, were supplied by their relations, every one bestowing according to his circumstances.

The governors and curacas, were, by their offices, obliged to marry after the same formalities, the young men and maidens of the provinces over which they presided. In quality of lords and fathèrs, of the districts, they were bound to assist in person, and to solemnize those marriages.

HOUSES OF THE INDIANS.

The houses of the married citizens, were by law provided at the expence of the community among which they were born. The inhabitants of one province or city, were not permitted to intermarry with those of another, but like the tribes of Israel, were restricted to marrying among themselves, and with their own relations. Tribes and nations were by this means prevented from being blended with each other. The inhabitants of the same city, or of the same province, speaking the same dialect, were accounted relations, and were prohibited going from one district to another.

The lover, previous to the ceremony of marriage, visited his mistress, and placed upon her feet the otoia, a species of shoe or sandal. The shoe for a young woman was formed of wool or cotton, but that for a widow was fabricated only of reeds A widow never went abroad during the first year after her husband's death, and even if she had no children, seldom married again. But if she was a mother, she passed her days in perpetual continence, and never entered a second time into the married state. Widows usually acquired, from this adherence to virtue, such universal esteem and respect, that they were allowed to enjoy several privileges. There were existing laws by which it was enacted, that the lands of widows should be cultivated sooner than those of the caracas or caciques and even than those of the Inca.

The females of the northern nation who are in a state of pregnancy, approaching perhaps to the hour of parturition, continue to labour at their ordinary tasks, to cultivate the fields, and to carry home burthens, conceiving that fatiguing exercises tend to facilitate delivery, and to render the children more robust. The ease with which they bring forth their children is wonderful; they are assisted indifferently by any person of the same cabin. If the event take place in the woods, or in the fields, they undergo alone that trial. They wash their infants in the first stream, at which they arrive, return to their cabins, and seem capable, on the same day, of engaging in their accustomed labours.

In some parts of South America, if women sustain not with

fortitude the pains incident to a state of labour, the apprehension which the relations entertain that the child will inherit the weakness of its mother, prompts them to destroy it, that none of their race may incur the turpitude of degenerating from the courage of his ancestors. The same rigour is practised with respect to those that are deformed, and the mother is frequently put to death together with the child.

If the infant be a male, the mother undergoes a kind of purification during thirty days, and if a female during forty, and returns not to the cabin of her husband until the expiration of that period. The new-born infant is plunged into water, and afterwards swaddled to little boards, lined with cotton, and more frequently with moss. The Brazilians, and several other nations in South America, pursue, in this respect, the same custom as the northern tribes; after dipping the child, they paint its body, and lay it in a hammock, placing by its side, if a boy, a bow, arrows, and a knife. Among the nations bordering on the south-east coast of the river Saint Lawrence, it was the practice, so soon as an infant was born, and before it was allowed to taste its mother's milk, to pour down its throat grease or oil. The eldest son bore the name of his father with the addition of one syllable, to that of the second son another syllable was added, and for the third and fourth sons the name was proportionably augmented.

The savage women are attached to their children by the most ardent and affectionate regard, nourishing them as long as they are able, and separating from them only through necessity, and with regret.

This tender care for their young is an innate principle, derived from nature, and not from reason. The powerful attachment and anxious solicitude of a mother towards her offspring appears, therefore, to be in many instances, stronger in the savage than in the civilized state of mankind. The allurements of pleasure and of fashion assume a seducing influence over the mind, occupy the passions, weaken the affections, and tend in some degree to obliterate a propensity, which nature had designed to be scarcely less powerful than that of self-preservation.

The practice of giving suck to their children to the age of six or seven years, appears to be universal among the women of America, who allow them also all kinds of food from the period of a year old. The free air to which they are expossd, the fatigues to which they are gradually habituated, in a measure proportioned to their age, together with simple and natural food, tend to render them capable of supporting incredible fatigues, whose excess occasions the death of many, long before the age of maturity.

It was customary even in Mexico, whose inhabitants had attained a considerable degree of improvement, for women to nourish their children for several years, and to abstain during that period from all intercourse with their husbands.

The birth of twins in a family, was by the Peruvians considered as an event that portended evil; and to mitigate or avert the misfortune with which they conceived themselves threatened, the parents performed acts of rigorous mortification.

At the weaning of their eldest children, the Incas generally made feasts and rejoicings, the right of seniority being held in great estimation. Less formality was used in the case of daughters or younger children. When they arrived at the age of two years they were weaned, and their hair was cut off. For the performance of this ceremony, all the relations assembled, and part of the hair of the infant was shorn by the godfather, who used for this purpose a sharp flint; each individual of the company followed in the same manner his example; when the name was given to the child various articles were presented to it. The dance, the bowl, and the song, were prolonged in rotation until midnight. In proportion to the quality of the person whose child had received its name, these acts of festivity were repeated, and continued sometimes for several days.

In whatever station of life a person was placed, to inure a son to hardships became his indispensable duty.

The manners of the youth were regulated by a sect of philosophers, called Amantas, who instructed them in the ceremonies and precepts of religion, in the laws of the empire, and in the duty which man owes to his fellow-creatures. At the age of six or seven years, employments suitable to their slender capacities were allotted to the children. Indolence and inactivity were reprobated as vices, and a taste for luxury was no less discouraged.

Among the Mexicans, when an infant was born, it was immediately carried to the temple, where the priest recited over it a discourse on the miseries and troubles to which, by its entrance into life, it became exposed. If it was the child of a tecuitle or noble, a sword was put into its right hand, and a shield into the left; if the child of a mechanic, the same ceremony was performed with tools. The priest then carried the child to the altar, where he drew from it a few drops of blood, and afterwards threw water on it, or plunged it into a cistern. Four days after the birth of the child, it was carried naked to a place where some rushes were deposited; a vessel filled with water was placed upon them, a woman plunged the infant into it, and three little boys called aloud its name. At the expiration of twenty days from

its birth, it was carried, together with an oblation, to the temple; it was presented to the priest by its parents, and from that day was devoted to whatever profession became their choice. From their earliest infancy children were accustomed to sobriety and moderation, and the quantity of their food was every year augmented. A child was initiated in such tasks and amusements as were deemed suitable to its age, and the growth of idleness was thereby checked and overcome.

Before the dawn of reason in children, no severe chastisement was used, and threats and advice were repeatedly applied before recourse was had to that remedy. At the age of nine years, a stubborn or rebellious child was punished with rigour. Greater tenderness was shewn in the punishment of females. A youth guilty of a crime after he had arrived at ten years was beat with a stick; if he lived to a greater age, a smoke which gave him excessive pain was applied to his nostrils, and if these inflictions did not effect reformation, he was carried with his feet and hands tied, and exposed in a swampy situation, during a whole day, to the torture of flies, the inclemencies of the elements, and the scorching heat of the sun.

For instruction in the principles of religion, and the constitution of the state, seminaries were instituted, into which young men of different ages in life were received. As the use of letters was unknown, the precepts of the teachers were derived from tradition, from living memory, and from the force of example. And they who were thus engaged to inculcate the more sacred duties, and the expediency of the practice of morality, as they formed the dispositions of the succeeding generation, and taught the elements of those sciences which fitted members for the future guidance of political affairs, were allowed in the nation the same respect as the ministers of the prince.

Some of the tribes in Louisiana flatten the forehead of their children, and cause the summit to terminate in a point. The taste of some of the natives of Canada is directed in a similar manner, but beauty, in their conception, consists in moulding the head to a round form.

The Caraibs have ther foreheads flattened, and sunk behind their eye-brows. They are not born in this state, but the head of the infant is compressed into this shape, by placing upon its brow a piece of board tied with a bandage, which is allowed to remain until the bones have acquired consistence. It ever afterwards retains its flatness in such a degree, that without raising or bending back the head, the eyes may be directed to objects pespendicularly above them.

We have already noticed that the children of savages

are early inured to hardships, and although their former system of education does not in general prevail in some of the countries where Europeans have established themselves amongst them, yet the same spirit, the same disposition, and the same austerity, are still observable. The instructions imparted to them by their parents consist in animating their courage by the example of their ancestors, in urging them to follow their footsteps, and by endeavouring to impress them with a love of the glory which may be acquired by address and bravery. They place in their hands, as soon as they can hold them, the bow and the arrow, which for some years serve them as instruments of amusement, but when their strength begins to ripen into manhood, are applied to more useful and more important purposes.

The children of the Floridians were instructed by means of emblems and hieroglyphics, in every thing which related to their families and their tribe; and their history, by this means, aided by oral tradition, was transmitted from one generation to another. Among some of the northern tribes, the mothers who have charge of the education of their children, allow them to act as inclination directs, under a pretence that they have not yet acquired reason, and that when it is bestowed by age, they will pursue its dictates, and correct and discipline their habits. They are, therefore, subjected to no restraint; but still they are docile, and have sufficient respect for those of their cabin, and likewise for the aged, which they ever continue to entertain.

The natives of Canada are in general tall, and well made. The Iroquois, who are of a high stature, are the most valiant of all the North American tribes; but inferior to many in swiftness, in skill in warfare, and in the chace. Neither of these occupations they individually pursue, but always engage in them in considerable bodies. The Illinois, the Oumamis, the Outagamis, and some other nations, are of a middle stature, and swift footed; the Outaouais, and the greater part of the other savages of the North, except the Saulteurs and Clistinos, are no less deficient in courage, than in appearance and due proportion of form. The Hurons are brave, enterprising, and sprightly, resembling the Iroquois in figure and countenance.

The North Americans are in general robust, and of a healthful temperament, calculated to live to an advanced age, were it not for the great irregularity in their mode of life. Their constitutions are ruined by long and rapid journies, by extraordinary fasting, and by great excess in eating. They are neither so vigorous nor so strong as most of the Europeans, but they are indefatigable, patient of disappointment, ill-fortune and hardship, braving without inconvenience either heat or cold. It is

habit alone in the earlier part of life which fortifies the human frame, and enables it to encounter with ease, not only exertion, but the severities of climate.

The women exceed not in stature the middle size, and they are in general so lusty, and so aukward in their [illegible] [illegible], as to render them but little attractive. The men hold themselves in high estimation, alledging that they are all equal, and have no subordination among them. They pretend that their contentment of mind far surpasses riches, that the satisfaction derived from the sciences, falls infinitely short of an exemption from care, or rather of that ignorance of refinement, and that absence of emulation, which enables them to pass their life in unambitious obscurity. Man is, they affirm, of no estimation in a state of polished society, unless he be rich; but among them, talent consists in swiftness of foot, in being skilled in the chace, in conducting a canoe with dexterity, in the science of warfare, in ranging the forests, in living on little, in constructing cabins, in cutting down trees, and in being able to travel hundreds of leagues in the woods, without any other guard or provision than the bow and arrow.

They enjoy, in a superior degree to Europeans, the perfection of the senses. In spite of the snow which dazzles their sight, and the smoke in which they are involved for nearly six months of the year, their organs of vision remain to a great age, unimpaired. They possess an acuteness of hearing, and a sense of smelling so strong, that they can ascertain their distance from fire, long before the smoke becomes visible. Their olfactory nerves are so exquisite, that they cannot suffer the smell of musk, or of any strong perfume. They assert, that they find no odour agreeable but that of food. Their imagination is powerful and just. It is sufficient for them to have been once in a place, to form a correct idea of it, which appears never to be effaced. They traverse, without deviating from their course, the vast and unfrequented forests. In the most cloudy and obscure weather, they will for many days follow the course of the sun, without being misled; the most perfect quadrant cannot give more certain information of the course of this luminary, than they are able to do by looking at the heavens. They seem to be born with a talent, which is neither the result of experience nor observation. Children, when they depart from their village to perform their first journey, preserve the same undeviating course as they who have repeatedly traversed the whole country.

In vivacity of imagination, many of the savages are by no means defective. They have the faculty of replying with rea-

diness, and their harangues frequently abound with luminous points. Nor is the eloquence of some of their orators destitute of that force, that conciseness, that nature, and that pathos, which the Greeks formerly admired in the Barbarians; and although it appears not to be sustained by action, which is sometimes a violation of the propriety of language, although they use few gestures, and seldom raise or vary the modulation of their voice, they appear to be penetrated with the force of every thing they utter, and rarely fail to persuade.

The correctness of their recollection is in no degree proportioned to the liveliness of their imaginations. Although destitute of the aids which civilized nations have invented to ease the memory, they can in some degree supply its defects. They can discourse upon many subjects, with a long detail of circumstances, and with considerable order and method. They use, on the most serious and important occasions, belts of wampum, or little sticks, to remind them of subjects which they are to discuss, and thereby form a local memory so unerring, that they will speak for hours together, and produce a variety of presents, each of which requires a particular discourse, without forgetting a circumstance, and even without hesitation. Their narrative is neat and concise, and although they introduce into it many allegories and figures, it appears spirited, and possessed of all the energy which their language can bestow.

Their replies are not only ready, but often ingenious. An Outouai being asked by the Count de Frontenac of what materials he conceived rum, of which he was so fond, to be formed, answered, that it was the spirit and quintessence of hearts and tongues; "for," continued he, "when I have drank of it, I fear nothing, and I speak with more than usual facility and boldness."

A chief of Virginia having been captived by a governor of that colony, was, to gratify the curiosity of the colonists, exhibited in public. The chief, whose eyes were so much weakened by old age, that he was necessitated to employ one of his people to open them, hearing the noise of a number of persons around him ordered his eyes to be uncovered. The sight of so great a multitude excited his anger and surprise. He reproached the governor for his ungenerous treatment, and added with a haughty air: "Had my fate been the reverse of what it now is, and had the chance of war made you my prisoner, I would not have violated your feelings by exposing you as a spectacle to the derision of the people."

The attachment which savages entertain for their mode of life, supersedes every allurement, however powerful, to change

it. Many Frenchmen have lived with them, and have imbibed such an invincible partiality for that independent and erratic condition, that no means could prevail on them to abandon it. On the contrary, no single instance has yet occurred of a savage being able to reconcile himself to a state of civilization. Infants have been taken from among the natives, and educated with much care in France, where they could not possibly have intercourse with their countrymen and relations. Although they had remained several years in that country, and could form not the smallest idea of the wilds of America, the force of blood predominated over that of education; no sooner did they find themselves at liberty than they tore their cloaths in pieces, and went to traverse the forests in search of their countrymen, whose mode of life appeared to them far more agreeable than that which they had led among the French.

ACCOUNT OF THE BARON DE SAINT CASTEINS.

The Baron de Saint Casteins, a gentleman of Oleron in Berne, having lived among the savages for upwards of twenty years, made himself so beloved by the Abinaquis, that they looked up to him as to a father. He was formerly an officer of the regiment of Carignan, in Canada, but from the period at which that corps was reduced, he joined the savages whose language he had acquired. He married after their manner, preferring the forests of Acadia to the Pyrenean mountains, with which his country is environed. During the first years of his residence amongst these natives, he conducted himself in a manner that conciliated their most cordial esteem. He was appointed their grand chief, or sovereign of their nation, and he amassed by degrees a fortune, of which any person except himself would have profited, by remitting to his native home a hundred thousand crowns in gold, which he possessed in his coffers. He, however, employed them in purchasing the manufactures of Europe, which he bestowed in presents on the savages, who, on their return from the chace, amply repaid him in furs. He was courted by the governors-general of New France, and likewise by the governor of New England. He had several daughters, who were all advantageously married to Frenchmen, each having a considerable dowry. To shew by his example that he thought incontinence displeasing in the sight of heaven, he never put away his wife, nor was known to change his attachment. He attempted to convert the savages to his religion, but his endeavours were without effect. The pious and ardent zeal of the Jesuits was likewise unaccompanied by any great degree of success, and they often, in vain, inculcated the truths of christianity. Their perseverance con-

tinued, notwithstanding, unrelaxed, and they accounted that the office of administering baptism to dying children, counterbalanced in a tenfold degree the inconveniences and mortifications attending a residence among these people.

The helpless and uncertain condition of man, says Mr. Heriot, has, in every country and age of the world, incited him to look for protection and support to the agency of supernatural power; and few nations are to be found, among whom some traces of religion are not discernible.

If a conclusion may be drawn from the care with which the Americans bury their dead, they appear to entertain the persuasion that the soul perishes not with the body. They deposit with the remains of their departed friends, food as well as instruments of the chace, that they may be enabled to provide for their subsistence in the region of spirits, and that they may not be compelled by hunger to revisit the abodes of the living. This principle, almost universally received among the Indians, was of great utility, by enabling many of the tribes of that people to admit with less difficulty the doctrines of the christian faith. Respecting the condition of souls after death, they gave themselves but little anxiety.

The tenets of religion, which faintly irradiate the minds of savages, are confused and indistinct, and the apprehension of impending evil, more than the suggestions of a grateful remembrance of good, seems to urge them to the practice of the ceremonies of worship.

To their deities they assign characters correspondent to the bias of their own propensities, and proportionate to the strength of their own conceptions. Each individual ascribes to the divinity whom he worships, inclinations and practices conformable to his own. His power is believed to consist in bestowing whatever may gratify the wish; his felicity is involved in the fruition of such imaginary objects, as may be affixed to happiness by those who adore him, and they confound, with the idea of his perfections, certain errors, which ignorance has taught them to appreciate as amiable qualities.

Among many of the native tribes of America, neither temples, altars, nor idols, nor any external form of worship, were discoverable by the Europeans who first visited them, and it was concluded that the ultimate hope of their existence was limited to the gratification of hunger, and of other sensual appetites. It was, therefore, too hastily pronounced, that, living like the animals of the forests, without the expectation of an hereafter, they offered no worship, and paid no religious rites, either to visible or to invisible deities.

An aversion, or, perhaps, an incapacity to attain any high degree of improvement in the arts of civilization, or in subjects of theology, seems to prevail in the character of the natives of this continent. Among such of them as had attained to the exercise of religious ceremonies, were observed rites, which bore a strong resemblance to those of the barbarians who first occupied the country of Greece, and spread themselves over Asia, to those of the people who served Bacchus in his military expeditions, to those, in fine, which afterwards became the foundation of the whole system of pagan mythology.

Even in the most barbarous state, man is not destitute of the moral principle. If influenced by passion, he is urged to the perpetration of a deed, which, on cool reflection, his heart afterwards condemns, he is led to suppose that such conduct must be higly offensive to the Deity, as well as injurious to the tribe of which he is a member. He has, therefore, recourse to some mode of expiation, to effect a reconciliation, and to procure forgiveness. Hence the introduction of sacrifice, and atonement by oblation. The reconciliation thus obtained implies a resolution to avoid former errors, and to pursue the practice of virtue, which exhibits the prospect of reward.

Many of the natives of America, like other uncivilized nations, worship the sun as a principal divinity, and it is not in Peru alone that he has been honoured by particular adoration, and that the sovereign regarded him as the author of his origin.

Some of the natives believe that they first derived their existence from animals; they entertain a faint idea of a deluge, and pretend that the commencement of the world which they inhabit is to be dated from that event. They celebrate feasts in honour of their deities, and on these occasions all the viands thus appropriated must be consumed. They erect posts painted of a red colour, to which the victims are affixed. Dogs are the holocausts, by which they conceive their divinities are most easily propitiated, and when they betake themselves to the chace, they add to these sacrifices the dressed skins of deers and elks. When they intend to set out on war expeditions, they attach to a post a bow and arrow painted red, and make a festival, during which they use every species of invocation, recommending to the care and guidance of their tutelar gods, their families, and the success of their enterprises.

INDIANS' IDEA OF IMMORTALITY.

Many of the Indian nations believe that the soul, after its separation from the body, enters into a wide path, crowded by spirits, which are journeying towards a region of eternal repose.

That in the way thither an impetuous river must be crossed by means of a bridge made of wicker, which continually trembles under the feet, and from whence the passengers incur much hazard of falling into the current. They who are so unfortunate as to be thrown from this passage are swept away by the stream, and can never return. The spirits which have passed the river, direct their course for a considerable way along its banks, making provision of fish, which they dry, until they gain an extensive meadow, whose extremity is terminated by precipitous rocks, over which there is a long and narrow path, with a barrier of two large logs of wood, alternately raised and depressed. These are intended to crush the living who might attempt to force a passage, but not as an impediment to the progress of the dead. The soul afterwards arrives at a beautiful meadow, boundless to the sight, filled with every species of animals, and abounding with the most delicious fruits; here is heard the sound of drums, and other musical instruments known to savages; from hence it is ushered into the abode of happiness and joy, where its journey is concluded, where it is invested with beautiful raiment, and where it mingles with an assembly of kindred spirits in the dance.

The Apalachites, a tribe of Florida, believe that they who have lived a life of virtue are admitted into Heaven, and are assigned a place among the stars. They suppose the habitation of the wicked to be upon the precipices of lofty mountains in the North, surrounded by bears, and other ferocious animals, and chilled by perpetual frost and snows.

The Indians of Carolina believe in the transmigration of souls; and whenever any one of their tribe dies, they bury along with him provisions and utensils for his use.

The Mexicans, who believed in the immortality of the soul, placed the habitation of the good not far from the sun. Their countrymen who had been slain in battle, or they who had been sacrificed to the gods, were, by the sanctions of their religion assigned the first station among the happy. To departed souls, according to the different modes in which they left this life, they apportioned various degrees of felicity or of wretchedness.

The Tlascalans paid adoration to a multitude of divinities, among which the goddess of love was allotted a distinguished rank. A temple was appropriated for the celebration of her rites and the whole nation assisted at her festivals.

Every misfortune in life is, by the savages, attributed to the influence of evil genii, and the dispensation of good they consider, on the contrary, to flow from the operation of benevolent spirits. To the former they offer up living sacrifices, to the

latter they present furs, or European merchandise received for these articles.

A day unclouded and serene is chosen for this ceremony, when each savage carries his oblation, and places it upon a pile of wood reared for the occasion. When the sun has attained its meridian altitude, children arrange themselves around the pile and apply to it flambeaux of lighted bark, whilst the warriors dance and sing, encompassing it with a circular figure until it is consumed. The old men deliver harangues to Kitchie Monitou, the good spirit, holding up at the same time, towards the sun, lighted pipes of tobacco. These songs, harangues, and dances are continued until the evening, not however, without some intervals of relaxation.

The priests of Hispaniola offered tobacco as the incense which they supposed most agreeable to their idols. When these ministers had intoxicated themselves with the fumes of this plant, they persuaded the people that the incoherent rhapsodies which they uttered in this state of delirium, were the oracles with which they were inspired.

When they worshipped their demons, the solemnity was previously proclaimed; and on the day of the ceremony, the cacique walked in procession at head of both sexes, of his subjects, arrayed in their best attire. The whole train moved by beat of drum towards the temples of those demons, who were there represented in the most hideous and disgusting shapes. Oblations were offered, which consisted of cakes brought by the women in baskets, adorned with flowers; and on a signal from the priests, the devotees began to dance, and sing the praises of Zemes, their principal spirit of evil, concluding with eulogies on their former caciques, and with prayers for the prosperity of the nation. The cakes are afterwards broken in pieces, and divided among the men, who carefully kept them in their houses for twelve months, as preservatives against various accidents. When the procession had reached the door of the temple, the cacique, who marched at the head, seated himself at the entrance, whilst the people went in, singing all the way, and passing in review before him. Their gods are said to reveal themselves to their priests, and sometimes to the people. If the priest, after consulting the oracle, danced and sung, he announced a favourable omen. But if he betrayed a sorrowful air, the people are sad and dejected, and abandoned themselves to grief and fasting.

Some of the natives of South America bestowed on the moon the title of mother, and honoured her in that quality. During an eclipse, they went in crouds from their cabins, and send-

ing forth cries and lamentable howlings, and launching into the air a prodigious number of arrows, to defend that luminary from dogs, which they conceived had thrown themselves upon it.

These people imagine when it thunders, that the storm is raised by some of their departed enemies, who would thus revenge their defeat. They are extremely inquisitive and superstitious with respect to a knowledge of the future. They frequently consult the songs of birds, and the cries of certain animals, and the changes which take place on the trees of the forest. These are their oracles, and they believe that they can draw from thence no doubtful indications of unfavourable events which may threaten them.

Their conjectures concerning the nature of thunder, are no less whimsical than singular. They say, that a species of men with wings like those of butterflies, and whose voice produces that awful sound, seat themselves, on these occasions, upon the clouds, and hover amid the regions of the atmosphere. Some of the tribes assert, however, that thunder is the effect of a bird of uncommon magnitude. In this opinion may be discovered an analogy to the emblematical arrangements of the ancient pagan nations, who consecrated the eagle to Jupiter, and represented that bird as the faithful minister and guardian of his thunder.

The savages of Paria worship the skeletons of their ancestors, and believe that the sun moves in a chariot drawn by tigers; they therefore preserve a veneration for those animals, and feed them with the flesh of the dead.

The inhabitants of Caribana, receive in a solemn manner the *spirit and valour*, which is nothing else than the smoke of tobacco blown upon them from the end of a long tube, by a priest, as they pass him severally in the dance. They who are desirous of participating in this ceremony, join in a circular dance, which they perform with an inclination of the head and shoulders, and violent contortions of the body. Three or four priests rush into the center of the circle, and separately whiff the dancers with the smoke of tobacco from their tubes, saying at the same time to each, "receive the spirit of force, that thou mayst be enabled to overcome thine enemies."

The natives of North America, pay no honours to the stars and planets, nor to fire, which has generally been held sacred by most of those nations accustomed to its use; nor to any animated divinity which they might be obliged to nourish. They speak, nevertheless, of Tharonhiaouagon as a being who once lived amongst them, but they have no multiplied Apotheosis. It is in proportion only to the diffusion of science, and to the expan-

sion of the mental faculties, that the catalogue of any system of Pagan mythology becomes augmented.

The Apalachites worship the sun and moon, but offer to these luminaries no living sacrifices. Their temples are used only as receptacles for the dead, and as depositaries for those articles which they appreciate the most. The entrances are adorned with trophies taken from the enemy. They entertain some faint idea of a general deluge, and celebrate festivals in honor of *Toia*, who, they conceive, possesses the power of dispensing evil to mankind.

The Spaniards found in some of the temples of Florida, wooden trunks or chests, placed near the walls upon platforms or benches, raised two feet from the ground. In these trunks dead bodies were embalmed, and deposited. There were besides boxes and baskets of reed, curiously wrought, the former containing dresses of men and women, the latter a quantity of pearls.

The Americans, like the ancient heathens of the eastern hemisphere, entertain a respect for high places, for stones of a conical form, and for certain groves and trees, which they esteem sacred. In some of the temples of the Natchez of Louisiana, these conical stones were carefully deposited, enveloped in a number of coverings of the skins of deer. The Abinaquis, who frequent the coasts of the Saint Lawrence, between Nova Scotia and Canada, are said to have had a sacred tree, of which they relate many extraordinary circumstances, and which was always charged with their vows. This tree having become extremely old, and the sea undermining the bank on which it stood, it was carefully propped up for many years, until at length it became a prey to the violence of the waves.

The inhabitants of Brazil endeavour to appease the wrath of their deities, by planting a stake in the ground, and placing an offering at its base. Of expiatory monuments similar to this, it appears that almost the whole of the Barbarian tribes avail themselves. Statues and idols of a rude form, have been found among some of the northern nations, as well as in the temples of Mexico and Peru. The savages of Virginia preserved among them symbolical idols of hideous deformity, under which shapes they affirmed, the demon whom they worshipped often appeared to them.

In Louisiana, the Natchez kept in their temple an incessant watch for the preservation of the perpetual fire, of which they were at great pains never to allow the extinction. This fire was commited to the care of a kind of priests, who slept in the temple upon hides stretched on the ground. Three pieces of wood

were employed to nourish it, and this number was never augmented or diminished. In this temple, the bodies of their departed chiefs, and of their families, were deposited. The great chief went at stated hours to the entry of the temple, where, crouching, and stretching forth his arms in the form of a cross, he sent forth a certain confused and indistinct murmur, without articulating any intelligible sounds. This ceremony was intended to mark the duty which he owed to the sun, as the author of his origin. His subjects used the same formalities towards the chief, and the princes of the blood, whenever they addressed them; to honour, by this exterior indication of reverence, the sun, from whom that family was supposed to be descended.

The Zempoellans, who inhabited the eastern coast of New Spain, were so much attached to their system of superstition, that when Cortes threw down the idols of their temple, and erected in their place a crucifix and an image of the Virgin, they were impressed with sentiments of horror and resentment. Excited to arms by their priests, they were about to take revenge on the Spaniards, had not Cortes exerted his utmost authority and address to appease them.

THE PERUVIAN INDIANS.

The Peruvians, previous to the arrival of Manco-Capac in their country, paid religious adoration to an infinite multitude of divinities. Mountains, caverns, trees, flowers, herbs, plants, and various animals, became the objects of their worship. They offered in sacrifice, not only the fruits of the earth, but also captives procured in warfare; and when these were wanting, young children were devoted for this service.

Manco-Capac and his sister, who was also his wife, pretended to be the offspring of the sun, and to have derived from that luminary their mission and authority. To conduct them to the place of their destination, they received from him a golden rod, with which they travelled from north to south, until it sunk in the valley of Cusco. In this situation they fixed the seat of their empire, and instructed the inhabitants in the principles of their doctrine. Until he could establish his authority by conquest, Manco-Capac availed himself of the ablest of his converts, for the purpose of diffusing his influence. He was at length enabled, by the extension of his power, to enforce among all his subjects the worship of the sun, and to communicate to them a code of political institutions, calculated to improve their system of society, and to promote in a greater degree, the general happiness.

The Peruvians directed a considerable share of their worship

to the sun; but they entertained a yet higher degree of veneration for a god, whom they denominated Pachacamac, and who was supposed to possess the principal power in animating and prolonging the existence of the universe.

The spirit of evil, whom they called *Cupai*, was conceived to be the reverse in disposition to the deities already mentioned. Although they feared him, they paid him no religious honours, and regarded him with aversion and disgust.

It was customary for the master of a feast, before he drank, to dip the tip of one of his fingers in the vessel, to raise his eyes in a submissive manner, and as an offering of gratitude, to shake the drop from the finger on which it hung. He at the same time gave three kisses to the air, and after this oblation every guest was allowed to drink at pleasure.

When they entered their temples, the person of the first rank, or the oldest man in the company, laid his hand on one of his eye-brows, and plucking some of the hairs from it, blew them into the air as an oblation.

There were in the temple of Cusco, several idols belonging to nations subdued by the Incas, which were worshipped by the captives, upon condition of their adoring the sun as the first divinity. A regard was thus paid to the religion of a vanquished people, whose attachment to their forms of superstition became feebler, when contrasted with a worship which was less absurd, and supported by the laws of the nation. The worship of the sun was thus rapidly diffused, and would have superseded that of all the strange idols, had not the Spaniards invaded and desolated the country.

The month of June was the period at which the great festival of the sun was held, and on this occasion a large vessel of gold was by the Inca consecrated to his honor. The ceremony was opened with sacrifices, in which it was not lawful to employ any fire but such as could be derived from the sun; and for this purpose the priest caught his rays in a small concave vessel, whose surface was smooth and polished. The converging rays were thrown upon some cotton, which was thereby ignited, and applied, for kindling the great fires for burning the oblations. A portion of this fire was afterwards conveyed to the temple of the sun, where it was carefully preserved all the year. If, on the day of the festival, the sun was obscured by clouds, it was considered as an evil omen, and deep affliction was testified by the priests. As a substitute for the celestial fire, the effect was produced by the friction of two pieces of hard wood.

The festival of *Citu*, held by the Peruvians after the equinox, was considered as a general lustration, to purify the soul by sa-

crifice, from those pollutions which it contracts by its connection with the body, and to preserve the latter from the maladies and accidents to which it is exposed. They on this occasion rubbed various parts of the body, and likewise the doors of their houses, with a kind of dough, and left a part adhering to the posts, to indicate that the house was purified.

The nocturnal lustration was performed by the Inca and four nobles of his family, who perambulated the city with burning torches, which they threw, half consumed, into a river in whose waters the people had washed themselves. These feasts concluded with rejoicings, prayers, thanksgivings, and sacrifices to the sun. The Peruvians confessed their sins to the priests appointed for that purpose, whenever the divine assistance was deemed necessary, and a chastisement proportioned to the magnitude of the offence, was imposed. Certain women had also a share in this religious function. When the Inca fell sick, a great and solemn confession was made by all the people. He confessed himself to the sun only, and afterwards washed himself in a stream of pure water, to which he addressed these words, "Receive and convey to the ocean, the sins which I have confessed to the sun."

The inhabitants of the valley of *Rimac*, afterwards distinguished by the name of *Lima*, worshipped an idol which was supposed to pronounce oracles, and to answer the enquiries of those who consulted it. The religion of these idolaters gave place to that of the Incas.

To Pachacamac human sacrifices were offered, and he was regarded with the most profound veneration. The ministers of his temple walked backwards when they entered, and retired in the same manner, without lifting up their eyes towards the idol.

The *Antis*, who inhabited the territory at the basis of the mountains of Peru, worshipped tygers and serpents. The nations of the province of *Manta* worshipped the sun, fishes, tygers, lions, and several other wild beasts, likewise an emerald of a prodigious size, which, on solemn festivals, they exposed in public.

The *Amantas*, or philosophers of Peru, supposed that animals were informed with a vegetative and sensitive soul, whose capacity extended not to reason; they believed in a future state, where the sanctions of religion were enforced, and where the souls of men enjoyed different degrees of happiness, proportioned to their virtuous actions, or were subjected to punishments, suitable to the degree of turpitude of conduct in the life through which they had passed. They distributed the universe into three distinct departments, the first of which was the habitation of the

good, the second was the world of generation and corruption, and the third was the centre of the earth, inhabited by the wicked. The highest enjoyments of the righteous they considered as consisting in a life of negative happiness, in a state of tranquillity and exemption from care, from whence they excluded all sensual pleasures.

The temples of Peru, under the reign of the Incas, were celebrated for their rich decorations, but more for the communities of vestals which were there maintained, and whose regulations resembled those of the Roman vestals, but were still more rigid and severe. They were obliged to vow perpetual virginity, and to consecrate themselves to the sun in quality of spouses. None were admitted into the order but daughters of the race of the sun, that his wives might be worthy of himself; and, that no suspicion might be entertained of their chastity, they were selected before the age of eight years. Their occupation was in the service of the altar, and if any of the young women violated her vow, the law ordained that she should be buried alive. The penalties inflicted on her seducer were not less cruel, and were extended not only to himself, but to his family, and even to the village where he was born. But such examples of legal vengeance never occurred, so great an influence over the minds of the people had the sanctions of religion, and the will of the sovéreign.

In Mexico, the temples, and the perpetual fire which was there maintained, were no less celebrated than those of Peru. They contained apartments allotted to the virgins who guarded them, and who were initiated at the age of twelve or fifteen years. These females were under no restraint with respect to the duration of the period of their ministry, but many devoted themselves for life to that service, and from the latter were selected matrons for superiors of these monasteries. They were occupied in different works for ornamenting the altars, and in making bread which was presented before the idols, and of which the priests alone had the privilege of partaking. They were maintained by alms, leading a life of mortification and austerity; they were frequently obliged to draw blood from their bodies, for the purpose of making oblations. Hence they were stiled Daughters of Penance.

The Mexicans adored, as the sovereign ruler and preserver of of the universe, a divinity whom they denominated Vitzliputzli, to whose name the epithet of *ineffable* was superadded. This idol was formed of wood, so as to resemble the human shape, and placed upon a square platform, having a serpent's head at each corner. He had wings like those of a bat, large eyes, and

a mouth of enormous magnitude, and he was covered with jewels; in his right hand was placed a waving snake, and in his left four arrows and a buckler, which were considered as a present from heaven. The ornaments as well as deformities of this idol, were emblems of mysterious import. A globe, which supported his throne, denoted his extensive power.

The Mexicans had, besides, another idol, composed of the various seeds of vegetables produced in the kingdom, bruised and kneaded together with the blood of victims. This idol was at stated periods renewed, and the old one was distributed in portions to the multitude, who believed that these relics possessed the virtue of securing them from danger. Impressed with this persuasion, the soldier carried them to the field of battle, and the principal officers were anointed by the priests with the holy water used at the coronation of the monarchs. The number of idols which this people had introduced into their calendar was incredible great; to each was allotted its temple, ceremonies, and sacrifices. A tutelar divinity was found in almost every street, and there was scarcely a disease which had not an altar, to which the inhabitants repaired in the hope of procuring a remedy. Some of the prisoners were selected, and each of these was treated in the most kind and respectful manner, for the period of six months or longer, according to the rank of the deity for whom he was destined as a sacrifice, and whose name he was compelled to bear.

A portion of meat and drink, and also of fruits and flowers, was presented as an oblation to the sun, and to the earth, before the commencement of every repast. The Mexicans were obliged, for the reverence which they were supposed to entertain for their gods, to undergo a species of penance, in which they submitted to the vilest offices. The priests, whose function it was, not only to offer up victims, but to bear the transgressions of the people, were invited by the sound of a horn to their midnight devotions in the temple of the idol. The penance to which a minister of the gods subjected himself, chiefly consisted in a sanguinary effusion from his feet, by pricking them with a flint stone. The priests likewise flogged each other with thongs of manghey made up in knots, and struck one another with stones. Morning, noon, and midnight, were the periods assigned for sacrificing to their gods, and they officiated alternately in the temple, to maintain the sacred fire. To instruct the people, by pronouncing before them solemn exhortations, was also a part of their duty.

In the city of Mexico there was, besides a great number of temples, a seminary for the education of youth, into which de-

votees also retired until they attained the accomplishment of some vow. To render themselves worthy of the bounty of heaven, a portion of their time was employed in the practice of austerities, during which some solicited health or long life, some wealth, and others children.

When the first corn made its appearance above the ground, a boy and girl were sacrificed to Taloch, the god of the waters, and when it had attained to the height of two feet, four children were offered to the same divinity. The origin of this cruel ceremony is attributed to a drought which produced a famine, and obliged the Mexicans to abandon their country.

In the month of May was celebrated the festival of Tescalipuca, when an absolution from their sins was granted to the several members of the empire. The chief priest of this idol, on the eve of the festival, stripped himself of his habiliments, in order to receive from the nobles, others of greater value. The gates of the temple being thrown open, one of the ministers of the god discovered himself, and blew a species of flute, turning himself towards the four quarters of the world, as if to invite to repentance all the inhabitants of the earth. He then took a handful of dust and applied it to his face, in which ceremony he was imitated by all the people, who at the same time poured forth their voices in melancholy sounds, interrupted by sighs, groans, and lamentations. Rolling themselves in the dust, they implored the mercy of their divinities, and with minds actuated by terror, invoked the shades of night, the winds, and the storms, to protect them from the fury of that spirit whose vengeance was impending to chastise them.

As the sanctions even of false systems of religion, and the ideas which they inspire, are sufficiently powerful to point out the road to virtue, and to exhibit the deformity of vice, the hearts of the vicious were struck with remorse, and, unable to resist the powerful impulse of imagination by which they were swayed, all made a public confession of their guilt. These agitations, so salutary in outward appearance, as they inspired for a time the hearts of the Mexicans with repentance, concluded with burning incense in honor of the deity whose festival they solemnized. At the end of ten days, which were passed in tears and affliction, the god was carried in procession, preceded by two ministers with thuribles in their hands, and whenever they threw the incense towards the people, the whole multitude simultaneously raised their arms in a devout manner, looking on the sun, and likewise on the god of penance. Some scourged themselves, others adorned the temple, and strewed the way

with flowers. When the procession was ended, each person made an oblation.

Sacred viands were served up to the idol by vestals, conducted by an old priest. A sacrifice was made of the person who that year had acted as the living image of Tescalipuca, and the ceremony concluded with dances and songs.

An idol, whose province it was to bestow wealth, was worshipped by mechanics, and by those engaged in commerce. A slave of an handsome appearance was purchased forty days previous to the feast, who represented during that period the deity to whom he was to be sacrificed, and at the expiration of which he was washed in the lake of the gods, an appellation given to the water which fitted him for the fatal hypotheosis which was to abridge his existence.

At the dawn of each day the people were called forth to their occupations, and at night warned to retire to rest, by a drum, which was beaten by the officiating priest of this idol.

The city of Cholula is said to have contained a great number of temples of the gods, and to have been considered as consecrated ground. The chief temple was composed of a mound of earth above forty fathoms in height, and a quarter of a league in circumference. Thither the Mexicans frequently repaired in pilgrimage. The idol of riches and industry, whose forms of worship have been described, was at that place adored as the god of air, the founder of the city, the institutor of penance, and the inventor of sacrifices. His devotees, to render themselves acceptable to him, drew blood from their tongues and ears. He was likewise worshipped as a god of war, and five boys, and the same number of girls, of three years old, were, before the army took the field, sacrificed to his honor.

The grand chief, or priest of sacrifices, was denominated Topiizin, whose office was hereditary, and always went to the eldest son: his robe was a red tunic bordered with fringe. He wore upon his head a crown of feathers of green or yellow colour, and rings of gold enriched with precious stones, were suspended from his ears. In his mouth he carried a pipe of stone of an azure blue colour. His face was painted black; he had the sole privilege of putting to death human victims. The instrument used for this horrible ceremony was a sharp knife formed of flint. In this barbarous function he was assisted by five other priests of an inferior order, who secured and held the victims. These, who were clothed in black and white tunics, wore artificial hair, fixed by bands of leather.

The Hurons, before they were converted to christianity, paid

little worship to any divinity, although the sentiment of a deity, and of a first cause of all things, was faintly imprinted on their hearts. Whilst in the occupation of the chace, or when exposed to danger, they implored his aid under the appellation of *Areskoui Soutanstiten*. In their war expeditions, and in the midst of their combats, they distinguished him by the name of *Ondoutaeté*, and believed that the distribution of victory or defeat was made by him alone. They often addressed themselves to heaven, and invoked the sun to witness their courage, their misery, or their innocence. But principally in the arrangement of their treaties of peace, or alliance with other tribes, they called upon the sun and the heavens as arbiters of their sincerity, and as powers, who, penetrating the most secret recesses of the heart, punished the perfidy of those who disregarded their most solemn engagements, and violated the fidelity of their promises.

The *Ondataouaouat*, a people speaking the Algonquintongue, always invoked, on their festivals, and other solemn occasions, *him*, who created the heavens, demanding health, long life, a fortunate issue to their wars, success in the chace and in fishing, and in all their trafficking voyages; and for this purpose made an oblation of part of the viands prepared for the feast. With the same view they threw into the fire tobacco, as an offering to that supreme power, whom they conceived to be different in essence from him who formed the earth. They added, that there was a distinct genius, who produced the cold and the winter, who, inhabiting the regions of the north, sent forth from thence his snows and penetrating frosts. Another power they believed to have the disposal of the waters, and occasionally to excite tempests on that element. The winds, they said, are produced by seven other genii, who, inhabiting the region between the heaven and the earth, cause at pleasure an agitation in the atmosphere.

Although the latter barbarians thus invoked under various names and characters, the Creator of the universe, they felt little of apprehension for his justice, or of gratitude for his bounties; and when they implored his assistance, they addressed him without any forms of respect or religious adoration This was no more than a practice, cold and unimpressive, which they affirmed to have been derived from their ancestors, which made no traces upon the mind, but to which, however, some of the missionaries assigned the credit of having predisposed these natives to receive with the greatest facility the sacred mysteries of the christian faith.

The priests of Florida were usually consulted on the fate of expeditions in war. He to whom application was made for this purpose, after having drawn two circles, between which he described hieroglyphics, knelt upon a shield, with his body bent forwards, his feet upwards, and his hands stretched out behind him; whilst he continued to twist and move his hands and toes, he distorted his features in an extraordinary manner. Having continued thus for fifteen minutes in the most violent agitations, and apparent convulsion of the muscles, he recovered himself from this fatiguing and unnatural attitude. He suddenly arose in a state almost frantic, approached the chief, and communicated to him the result of his spiritual conference, stating the number of the enemy, the place of encampment, and the fortune of the expedition.

The inhabitants of Campeché, Yucatan, Tosbasco, and Cozumel, worshipped idols of the most monstrous and terrific forms. They were placed on altars, which were ascended by steps, and human victims were thrown in a confused manner at their feet. The temple of the idol in the island of Cozumel was composed of stone, of a square form; in the body of the idol there was an aperture, which communicated with the head, and through which the priest pronounced the oracles, unseen by the devotees.

The inhabitants of Nicaragua adored the sun and a number of other divinities, to whom they presented human sacrifices. The victims were honored with an apothesis, and deified by their countrymen. The people carried banners in processions, and an image of one of their principal deities fixed on the end of a lance, was held by the priest, followed by his brethren, who sang until he halted, and drew blood from some part of his body, in honor of the god. The whole assembly imitated his example, and besmeared the face of the idol with their blood. Their temples were low and dark, and the altars were generally erected before them.

In the province of Darian, the priests are the ministers of war. They adore a spirit of evil, to avert the effects of its displeasure, presenting to it flowers, perfumes, and maize. In the consultations of their oracles, the priests throw themselves into various attitudes, distorting their features, mimicking at the same time the howling of beasts of prey, or the voice of birds, and mixing with that noise the rattling of the chichiconé, and the sound of the cane drum. A deep silence succeeds, and the answer of the oracle is pronounced.

In healing the sick, the patient is placed upon a stone, the

priest taking a bow and some slender arrows, and shooting them at him as quickly as possible. Upon each arrow there is a stay, to prevent it from piercing beyond a certain depth. If the point of an arrow enter a vein, and if the blood should flow from thence with violence, the operation is declared successful.

The inhabitants of Rio Grande which disembogues itself into the gulph of Uraba, worshipped an idol called Dabaiba, to which they went in pilgrimage to sacrifice slaves. They fasted two or three days, and performed several outward acts of devotion, accompanied by sighs, groans, and extasies. This goddess was reputed by the savages to have led a virtuous life upon earth, and was deified by them after her death. The priests made a vow of chastity, which, if ever they violated, the punishment of being burnt or stoned to death, followed with inevitable certainty.

The barbarians of the valley of Tunia, worship the sun and moon, and an idol called Chiappen, to which they sacrifice slaves and prisoners, and previous to going on a war expedition, they besmear its body with blood.

The sun and moon are worshipped as gods by the inhabitants of Cumana and Paica. Thunder and lightning are considered as denunciations of the anger of the former, and during an eclipse, the most severe mortification is practised; they pull their hair, and wound themselves with sharp instruments. They consider comets as phenomina of evil omen, and of pernicious tendency, and use every instrument and means of raising a most terrific noise, to exercise those heavenly wanderers, and to frighten them away.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

The instruments of music in use among some of the Americans, consists of a kind of tympanum, or drum, with a spherical machine of bladder, or of callibash, or the shell of a tortoise. The drum is of the size of the *tambour de basque,* made with hoops of three or four inches wide, of different diameters, having skins extended on each end. Being filled with pebbles, it becomes unnecessary to beat on it; and by putting it in motion a noise is produced. The drum is sometimes formed, by simply extending a skin over a brass pot or kettle.

INDIANS OF CAYENNE.

The initiation of warriors among the inhabitants of Cayenne is performed in the following manner. He who wishes to aspire to the condition of captain, enters his cabin with a buckler on his head, and with eyes fixed on the ground. He is there con-

fined within so small a space, that he has scarcely room to move, and observes a long and rigorous fast, during which the captains of the tribe, morning and evening, represent to him, with their natural eloquence, the manner in which he must conduct himself in rencontres with the enemy; that he must not be afraid to face any danger for the honor of his nation, and, that to take vengeance on those who fail not to treat with cruelty and indignity their countrymen when captived in warfare, is the most solid gratification, and the height of military glory. The harangue being ended, he receives a foretaste of the pains he would undergo in a state of captivity, each captain discharging on his body three powerful strokes with a whip, twisted from the roots of the palm-tree; a discipline which, for six weeks, is twice every day repeated. When this part of the rude ceremony of probation is concluded, another is prepared for him, by assembling at a festival all the chiefs of the country, who with horrific cries present themselves before the hut, which they enter with their arrows on their bows, and carrying him out in his hammock, suspend him between two trees, where he prepares himself to receive from each chief, a cut with his whip. On replacing himself in his bed, a fire made under it, so that the heat and smoke, but not the flame, may reach him. Whilst the unhappy subject of their inflictions is thus suffering, the chiefs are occupied in feasting. When he is almost dead, they make for him a necklace, and girdle of palm leaves, which are filled with large ants, whose acute punctures compel him to distort his body, and to spring upon his legs, on which a sieve is used to sprinkle liquor over his head. Having purified himself in the waters of a neighbouring stream, he returns to his hut. He must undergo yet another period of fasting, but of shorter duration than the first; and when it is ended, he is proclaimed a captain, and a new bow and arrows, with other necessary implements of war, are delivered to him.

The government of the natives of Guaiana was monarchical, there being only one chief to whom they yielded obedience, This personage was usually elected from among the most experienced of the nation, being required to possess, not only the ordinary qualities of courage, patience, activity, and strength, but an intimate knowledge of the country, and of the road, which led to the surrounding nations. He was obliged, during nine months, to observe a rigorous fast, during which, his daily sustenance was no more than an handful of millet. To carry enormous burthens, and to stand as sentry at night, was another part of his duty. Detachments were sent on discovery, upon whose return, he set out, and endeavoured to trace their foot-

steps to the utmost extent of their route, without any previous information respecting the direction in which they had proceeded. To accustom himself to patience under sufferings, he remained for a considerable time buried as far as the middle in hillocks formed and inhabited by the large ground ants, whose bite induces a fever to Europeans. When he was thought to be sufficiently tried in this manner, the whole nation assembled, and went in quest of the intended chief, who concealed himself under the leaves of trees, to indicate this aversion to the honor which was destined him, or as an emblem of his being elevated from a low station, to be placed in the highest estate. Each of the assistants advanced in the attitude of dancing, and placed his foot on the head of the candidate for sovereignty, who being afterwards raised from his posture of prostration, all the assembly knelt before him, and placed their bows and arrows at his feet. The chief, in his turn, successively raised his foot upon the head of each individual present, and was led in triumph to a cabin, where a feast was prepared by women, who awaited him. Before he partook of it, he shot an arrow from his bow into a cup the size of an egg, attached to the summit of his hut. He partook with avidity of the festival, but was thereafter obliged to live for thirty days in the most abstemious manner.

The ceremony being ended, the captain was considered to have full power and authority over the whole nation, which was guided by his orders and his movements; at his sole pleasure it was, that war or peace were made.

The forms of adoption into the class of warriors among several of the North American Indians, consists in preparing a feast of dog's flesh, boiled in the grease of bears, to which huckle berries are added as an ingredient. Of this, all the warriors of the tribe are invited to partake. The repast being finished, a war song to the following purport, is vociferated by by all who are present.

"Look down upon us, O great Master of Life! and permit us to receive into our class a warrior, who appears to possess courage, whose arm is powerful, and who fears not to expose his body to the enemy." The new ... ate is then presented with a pipe of war, out of which he smokes and passes it to the guests. A belt of wampum is placed on his neck; he is introduced by two chiefs into a sudatory, prepared with long poles fixed in the ground, and pointed at top in the form of a cone, over which skins and blankets are thrown, to exclude the air.

This species of tent is sufficiently large to contain three persons. Two large stones made red hot are brought into it, and water is from time to time sprinkled upon them. A profuse

perspiration is produced by the steam, and the pores are thereby relaxed, for the performance of another part of the ceremony. Leaving the hut, he immerges himself into a stream of water; on his coming out, a blanket is thrown over him, and he is conducted to the dwelling of the chief, where he is extended on his back. With a pointed stick dipped in water mixed with gunpowder, the chief delineates on his skin, a figure which is afterwards more durably impressed. For this purpose, an instrument formed of a number of needles fixed in a small wooden frame, and dipt in vermilion, is used for pricking the lines already traced. Where it becomes necessary to impress bolder outlines, an incision is made with a flint. The parts which have not been marked with red, are rubbed with gunpowder, and produce a variety in the colouring. To prevent the wounds from festering, they are generally seared with pink wood. Two or three days elapse before the operation is finally performed. The wounds are every morning washed with the cold infusion of an herb, named by the natives Poquesegan. The war songs are frequently repeated, and accompanied by the chichicoué and other noisy instruments, which tend to stifle the groans produced by so acute a mode of torture.

In Peru, the branches of the blood royal were numerous in the state, none but the children of the sun were permitted to undergo the ceremony of initiation. At the age of fifteen years, they were paid the marks of honor and respect bestowed on men, and enjoyed the privileges of manhood, by being at that early age habituated to the use of arms, and entrusted with some charge in the empire. They underwent the most rigorous probation, in which they practised in supporting all kinds of hardship, to render them capable of sustaining with becoming fortitude, every reverse of fortune. It was requisite to encounter on these trials with honor: for if any symptom of imbecility was betrayed, disgrace was not only attached to the noviciate, but to all his relations. He therefore ceased not, by prayer and oblation, to make addresses to the sun, that he would endow him with courage to terminate with honor that necessary career of painful probation. Young princes fit to be initiated, were chosen every two years. They were placed in a structure allotted for their use, under the conduct of experienced old men, who were charged with proving and instructing them. The proof commenced by a fast of several days duration, that they might be inured to hunger and thirst; they became thereby reduced to a state of absolute inanition, having only allowed them at certain times, some Indian corn and water. The periods of fasting were prolonged in proportion to the strength of the sufferer, and

they were extended as far as possible, without being productive of a determination of existence.

In like manner as they were diciplined to subdue the body by hunger and thirst, they were accustomed to long and exhausting watches. They were posted as sentinels for several successive days, during which they were regularly visited. When the sufferings of the first trial were ended, they were conducted to another consecrated place, where they were to display their dexterity in the course. The distance to be run over was a league and a half; a standard was erected, and allotted as a reward for him who first arrived, and who was thereupon chosen as chief of the remaining youths. The last in the course was stigmatized with disgrace. The relations, to avoid this misfortune, either accompanied their children in running, or placed themselves at different stages on the course, in order to stimulate them by motives the most cogent, to rouse and fortify the sentiments of honor and to promote the utmost exertions of emulation.

They were instructed in fabricating the different parts of the dress and arms worn by a soldier, and in all the exertions of that profession.

Far from being exempted from any of these trials, the presumptive heir to the crown was treated with still greater rigour. He was taught, that a monarch's authority over his subjects, ought to be derived rather from his virtues than from his elevated rank, which could bestow on him no personal merit. He was made to sleep upon the hard ground, to watch, to fast, to labour, and to endure pain, equally with the most inconsiderable subject of the realm. His pride was subjected to acts of constant humiliation, and he wore the meanest and worst of garments, that, when placed upon the throne, and surrounded with the splendour of majesty, he might be alive to the impressions of distress and misery; that his experience of human calamity might urge him to relieve the unfortunate, and to merit the appellation bestowed on the sovereigns of Peru, that of friends and benefactors of the needy and the poor. Having accomplished this rigorous probation, he underwent the operation of having his nostrils and ears perforated by the sovereign himself. The chief princes of the court who assisted, conferred on him other marks of dignity. He was then declared a true Inca, or real child of the sun, and the solemnity was terminated by sacrifice and rejoicing, the ordinary conclusion of every important event.

Besides the proofs which all the Mexicans, of both sexes of a certain age, generally underwent in their temples, there were other probationary sufferings established for the nobility, according to the different degrees of elevation to which they would

aspire, even as high as the throne, the dignity of which was elective, not hereditary. The stages of rank for the military were, like the orders of knighthood, superior one to another, and distinguished by peculiar titles, and by emblems or habits allotted to each class. These orders had also their several modes of imitation. To become *Tecuitle*, which was of the order of nobles the first after the monarch, it was necessary to be related to the most dignified nobles of the state, and to be distinguished by uncommon acts of prowess.

He who aspired to this dignity declared his intentions to all his friends and relatives, and to all the tecuitles of the empire, three years before the period of the qualification was to take place.

The augurs, at the time of their assembling, having made choice of the most propitious day, accompanied the candidate to the most superb temple of the city, which is dedicated to the god of armies. He was led by the arm to the altar, and placed in an attitude of piety and humiliation. The high priest presented himself before him with the painted bone of a tyger, or the claw of an eagle, with which he pierced his nose, putting a piece of amber into the hole, to prevent the flesh from re-uniting. He then made use of the most odious appellations, and ignominious expressions towards him; and not satisfied by insulting him with words, he stripped him almost naked, and whipped him with severity. The candidate then retired to a chamber of the temple, where he was occupied in prayer, whilst the assistants were engaged in an oblation and festival, mixed with songs, dances, and other demonstrations of joy, at the conclusion of which they retired, leaving in solitude and silence the principal actor of the drama. In the evening they conveyed to him all that was deemed necessary, during four days of his confinement, such as rags to cover him, a plank on which to sit, colours for painting himself, pointed bones to wound himself, and incense to offer to the idols. He was committed to the care of three persons, who were to instruct him in the ceremonies of his profession. Some heads of Indian corn were allowed him for sustenance, and he was permitted, for a limited time, to sleep in a sitting posture, but was afterwards kept awake by the attendants, who pricked his flesh with awls formed of hard wood. At midnight he presented before the idol, incense mingled with drops of his own blood.

On the expiration of the four days, he went from one temple to another, during the period of a year, subjecting himself in each to new trials of mortification and pain. The year being expired, a propitious day was chosen from the calendar, and set apart for the termination of the ceremony, when the tecuitles, with other

nobles and relations of the candidate, washed him, and conducted him to the same temple which he had at first entered. There, at the foot of the altar, he divested himself of his old attire, and his hair was dressed, and tied behind with a piece of red leather, from which were suspended several beautiful feathers. He was clothed in a robe of fine cotton, and over it was laid another, the investiture of his order. A bow and arrows were put into his hand, and the high priest, addressing the new knight in a long discourse upon the nature of his obligations, exhorted him to entertain sentiments suitable to the dignity of the station to which he was raised. He then bestowed on him a new name, accompanied by his benediction, and the ceremony was crowned with sacrifices, feasting, dancing, and other demonstrations of public joy.

The kingdom of Mexico being elective, no sooner were the customary honours paid to the memory of the departed monarch, than the inferior kings, and electoral princes, assembled to make choice, from among persons of military rank, of a subject proper to be elevated to the supreme dignity. The election having been made, two festivals were appointed, the one to celebrate the advancement, the other, the coronation of the new sovereign.

He was stripped naked, and conducted to the temple by a great company, consisting of all the classes of the kingdom. Two nobles assisted him in mounting the steps of the altar, while he was preceded by two of the senior electoral princes invested with the ensigns of their dignity, and followed by persons who were to assist in the ceremony, the rest of the assembly respectfully kneeling.

The person invested with the supreme sacerdotal office, cloathed in his pontifical ornaments, and attended by a number of priests in white robes, approached to anoint the body of the sovereign elect, rubbing him with an oil of a black hue, sprinkling upon him, likewise, drops of the same, and throwing over his shoulder a cloak, on which were embroidered human sculls; upon this was placed one of a black colour, and a third of a blue, with devices resembling the first. He fixed around his neck a collar with mystic symbols, suspending from it a phial containing a powder, whose effects were to guard him against all kinds of enchantment and sorcery. He attached to his left arm a small bag of incense, and took a censer in his right hand. He raised himself, offered incense to the idol, and was again seated. The high priest then advancing towards him, administered an oath that he would maintain the religion and laws, that he would make war, whenever it should be deemed necessary, against the ene-

mies of the state, and that he would dispense justice to his subjects. He was afterwards led, amid the acclamations of the people, to a separate apartment of the temple, where he was constrained to pass in solitude, in fasting, severe discipline and penitence, the space of four days, during which he offered in sacrifice a portion of his blood, accompanied with incense and odours. The coronation did not take place until the new king had accomplished some fortunate enterprize against his enemies, gained in person some important victory, or subjugated some rebellious province, and led in triumph a numerous band of captives, to be imolated to the gods on the celebration of that festival.

On the day of his arrival from battle, the high priest, followed by all the ministers of the altar, the electors and nobles, met him in order of procession, accompanied by musicians, and warriors who guarded the prisoners, and bore the spoils of the vanquished enemy. Having entered the temple, he was invested with the emblems of empire and regal dignity. In his right hand was put a long sword of gold, as a symbol of justice, and in his left, a bow and arrows. A mitre was placed on his head by the king of Tescuco, the senior elector. The monarch then seated himself on his throne, and received the homage of all the orders of the empire.

The forms of initiation prescribed for the priests of Mexico, were still more painful and arduous than those for the sovereigns and different orders of the nobility. The candidate for priesthood was subjected to long fasts, mortifications, infliction of wounds, and other torments. The necklaces and cinctures of ants were not omitted; and when by long abstinence, reduced to almost the last extremity of weakness, he was compelled to dance until he fainted, and fell prostrate on the earth. A liquor extracted from tobacco was introduced into his mouth through a funnel, which caused for several days the most violent effects on his whole system. During his confinement he was instructed by old magicians, in the art of raising and consulting demons. His probationary toils being completed, he was supposed to be invested with the power of curing maladies, and of penetrating into the womb of futurity. That he might be rendered more perfect in his profession, a fast of three years was assigned him, during the first year of which he was allowed only millet or bread; but in the last two, he experienced somewhat more of indulgence; if he conformed not strictly to the regulations established for admission to the order, he was believed neither to have power in curing maladies, nor in the evocation of spirits.

These men, the attainment of whose profession was attended

with such difficulty and pain, were from time to time obliged to abstain from certain kinds of food, and frequently to swallow copious potations of the nauseous and unpalatable liquor, produced from the leaves of the tobacco plant.

Some of the tribes of the Moxes adore the sun, the moon, and the stars; others pay divine honors to rivers, to pretended invisible tygers, or to small idols, which, like the *Penates* of the Romans, they always carry about with them. They have no fixed system of religious belief, they live almost without the hope of future reward; and when they perform any act of devotion, it proceeds by no means from motives of gratitude or affection, but from fear, which seems to be their only actuating principle. They imagine that in every object there resides a spirit, which is sometimes irritated against them, and which visits them with evil. Their principal endeavours are, for this reason, directed to appease and propitiate this secret, irresistible power. They appear to have no form of worship, exterior or solemn; and among such a variety of nations, only one or two have been found to use a species of sacrifice.

There are, however, among the Moxes, two orders of ministers concerned in the affairs of religion. The office of the one is that of enchanter; the functions of the other, the restoration of health to the sick. The members of the first are not elevated to this rank of honour, until they have undergone a rigorous abstinence of a year's continuance, during which it is not permitted them to taste of viands, or of fish. They must, besides, have been wounded by a tyger, and have escaped from his fangs. They are then revered as men of singular virtue, because they are supposed to have been favoured, and respected by an invisible tyger, who protected them against the attacks of the ferocious animal with which they had contended.

After having continued for a certain period in the exercise of an inferior function, they are elevated to the highest rank. But in order to be rendered worthy of this new situation, they must fast for another year with the same rigour, and their abstinence must exhibit outward indications of its reality, by a ghastly and extenuated visage.

Their eyes are anointed with the juice of certain pungent herbs, from which they suffer the most acute pains, and this is the last impression of penance necessary to accomplish the sacerdotal character. They pretend, that by this means, their sight is rendered more clear and penetrating, and hence they assume the title of *Teharaugui*, which, in their language, imports a sharp-sighted person.

It has ever been the practice of the ministers of superstition,

to aim at an influence over their fellow-creatures. They endeavour to persuade their countrymen, that by the sanctity of their character, their abstinence, and mortifications, they have gained the favour of heaven, from whence they can obtain whatever may be the object of their prayers. They assert, that they are not only able to procure victory over their enemies, but that the fertility or barrenness of the earth, is effected by their interposition.

At stated seasons of the year, and particularly towards the new moon, these ministers assembled the people upon a hill not far from the village. On the dawn of day, all the inhabitants proceeded in silence to this place, and when a certain time had elapsed, the silence was suddenly interrupted by a burst of frightful cries, intended by them to mollify the hearts of their divinities. The whole day was occupied in fasting, and in the ebullition of confused and lamentable howlings; and it was not until the approach of night, that they concluded with the following ceremonies.

The priests began by cutting off their hair, which, among these people, was an indication of great chearfulness, and by covering their bodies with feathers of a yellow and red colour. Large vessels, containing an intoxicating beverage, prepared for the occasion, were presented to them. They received them as the first fruits offered to their divinities, and after having drank without measure, abandoned them to all the people, who, following the example of the priests, drank also to excess.

ACCOUNT OF THE MOXES.

The Moxes have some idea of the immortality of the soul, but this ray of reason is much obscured by the darkness which envelopes their mental faculties.

These nations are distinguished from each other by the different languages which they speak. Thirty-nine of these tongues are reckoned, no one of which has any analogy to another.

The Moxes inhabit a territory separated from Peru by the Cordeleras, where the heats of a burning sun, joined to the almost constant humidity of the earth, generate a great number of serpents, vipers, ants, musquitoes, flying bugs, and an infinity of insects, which allow not to the inhabitants a moment of repose. This humidity renders the soil so ungrateful, that it is incapable of producing corn, vines, or any of the fruit-trees which are cultivated in Europe; nor can sheep subsist there. The country was equally unfavourable for the support of horned cattle, but when it became more cleared of its woods, and when

its population increased, it was found that these animals multiplied there as much as in Peru.

The Moxes, at certain seasons, subsist only by fishing, and on particular roots, which the country abundantly supplies. The cold is at some periods so penetrating, that a part of the fish in the smaller rivers is destroyed by it; and the borders, on a change of temperature, become sometimes infected by their putrefaction. The Indians hasten thither, to procure provisions. In vain did the missionaries endeavour to dissuade them from eating the fish in a state of putrescence; they were told in reply, that the influence of the fire rendered all food equally sweet.

It has already been remarked, that for a considerable part of the year, they are necessitated to retire to the mountains, and there to subsist by the chace. On these elevated regions is found an abundance of bears, leopards, tygers, goats, wild hogs, besides a number of other animals whose species exists not in Europe. Monkies of various sizes and descriptions are also seen there, the flesh of which, when it is dried and smoked, constitutes for the Indians a delicious food.

The Moxes appeared to possess neither laws nor government, nor civil polity; no person seemed either to command or obey. If any difference arose among them, each individual did himself justice by his own arm. As they were compelled, from the sterility of the soil, to disperse into different countries, in search of the means of subsistence, their conversion became attended with almost insurmountable difficulties.

They built low cabins in places which they chose for their retreat, and each cabin was inhabited by all those of the same family. They slept on the ground, upon mats, or in hammocks, which they slung to stakes, or which they suspended between two trees, and there lay exposed to the injuries of the air, the insults of animals, and the bites of musquitoes. Against the latter inconveniences they usually endeavoured to guard themselves, by kindling a fire on each side of the hammock; the flame gave them warmth, the smoke drove away the musquitoes, and the light terrified the animals of prey. But their sleep was frequently interrupted by the care which was necessary for feeding the fire. They had no regular periods of repast; when in the possession of food, to them all hours were alike. As their aliments were gross and insipid, it was seldom that they ate to excess; but they failed not to supply this deficiency by drinking. They have acquired the secret of making a strong liquor from fermented roots, which they infuse in water. This beverage intoxicates them in a short time, and inspires them with the utmost

excess of fury. It is principally used in the feasts which they celebrate in honor of their gods.

Although subject almost to continual infirmities, they seldom use any medical applications. They are even ignorant of the virtues of certain healing plants, which instinct alone points out to animals, for the preservation of their health. What seems yet more deplorable, they are skilled in the knowledge of poisonous herbs, which they use on every occasion, to inflict vengeance on their enemies. When they prepare for war, they empoison their arrows, whose effects are so deleterious, that the smallest wounds become mortal.

The only consolation which they receive in their maladies, is derived from certain sorcerers, whom they imagine to have received a peculiar power to administer supernatural relief. These quacks visit the persons afflicted with disease, recite over them a superstitious prayer, promise to fast for their recovery, and to swallow, a certain number of times during the day, the fumes of tobacco. It is considered a signal instance of favor if they suck the part affected, after which they retire, on condition of being liberally rewarded for this species of service.

The country is by no means deficient in remedies for the cure of disorders, not less abundant than efficacious. The missionaries, who applied themselves to the knowledge of the simples there produced, composed of the bark of certain trees, mixed with herbs, a successful antidote to the bite of snakes. On the mountains are found many plants and trees of salutary virtue.

The only occuption of the Moxes is in the chace and fishing, or in preparing and adjusting their bows and arrows; that of the women is to ferment the liquor which their husbands drink, and to take care of the children.

The various nations comprehended under the general name of Moxes are almost ever at war with each other. Their mode of fighting is tumultuary, and they attend to no discipline. One or two hours of combat terminates a whole campaign, and they who are taken in battle become slaves, and are sold at a cheap rate to neighbouring nations with whom they traffic.

The funerals of the Moxes are performed almost without any ceremonials. The relations of the deceased dig a grave, and accompany the body thither in silence, or in uttering sighs. When it is placed in the earth, they divide among themselves the spoils of the deceased, which generally consist of things of little value.

After repeated endeavours, attended with a degree of success, far inadequate to their zeal to convert to christianity various tribes of Indians, the missionaries at length discerned the neces-

sity of imparting to these people a knowledge of agriculture, of collecting them into large bodies, and of allowing them to feel the advantages derived from some of the most essential arts of civilized life, before their minds could be prepared for the reception of the doctrines of true religion.

The Guaranis are the inhabitants of a region in South America, extending from the river Parana, which flows into the Pragua, under the twenty-seventh degree of south latitude, as far as the Uragua, which unites with the latter in the thirty-fourth degree. The Perana and the Peragua, pour with impetuosity from the elevated mountains near the country of Brazil, and afterwards direct their course through extensive plains covered with forests.

In the year 1580 the Jesuits first penetrated into these fertile regions, and founded the missions of Peraguay, or rather of Uragua, the river on whose borders they are situated. They were divided into thirty-seven villages; twenty-nine on the right bank of the Uragua, and eight on the left, each governed by two Jesuits in the habits of the order. Two motives, which, when not hurtful to each other, may be brought into alliance, religion and interest, had prompted the monarchs of Spain to wish for the conversion of these Indians. By becoming catholics, they would in a certain degree be civilized, and a vast and fertile tract of territory, would thus be subjected to the Spanish dominion.

These views the Jesuits undertook to fulfil, but at the same time represented, that, to facilitate the success of an enterprise at once so difficult and toilsome, they must be made independant of the governors of the province, and that not a Spaniard should be permitted to enter into their country. The motive on which this demand was founded, originated from the apprehension that the vices of Europeans would diminish the fervour of their Neophytes, and detach them from the christian religion, and that the haughtiness of the natives of Spain might render odious the burden of a yoke already too weighty. The court of Madrid approved of these reasons, ordered that the authority of the governors should not be extended to the missionaries, and that sixty thousand dollars should be issued to them every year, from the treasury, for the expence of clearing the soil, upon condition that, in proportion to the increase of population, and the value of the lands, the Indians, from the age of sixteen to that of sixty, should annually pay a dollar each, as a tribute to the sovereign. It was also stipulated that the missionaries should teach the Indians the Spanish language; but this condition, probably from its impracticability, was, it appears, never executed.

The natives, charmed by the eloquence and manners of the

Jesuits, cheerfully obeyed men, whom they conceived as sacrificing themselves to their happiness.

The extent of territory which comprehends these missions is about two hundred leagues from north to south, and one hundred and fifty from east to west, and the population is nearly three hundred thousand souls. The immense forests produce timber of every species, and the vast plains of pasturage contain not less than two millions of cattle. Large rivers enliven and beautify the interior of this country, and invite thither the active and improving influence of commerce and circulation.

The territory was divided into parishes, each of which was regulated by two Jesuits, the one the curé, the other the vicar. The total expence for the support of the villages amounted to no more than a moderate sum, the Indians being fed, clothed, and lodged, by the exertion of their own industry. The most considerable charges were incurred on account of the churches, which were constructed and ornamented with splendour. The rest of the produce of the lands, and all the animals, belonged to the Jesuits, who imported from Europe, utensils for different trades, glass, knives, sewing needles, images, beads, gun-powder, and fusils. Their annual revenue consisted of cotton, leather, honey, tallow; and *maté*, or the herb of Paragua, of which the society retained the whole commerce, and whose consumption is great in the Spanish Indies, where it is substituted for tea.

Corregidors and capitularies, charged with the details of administration, were annually elected by the natives from among themselves. The ceremony of their election was performed with pomp, on the first day of the year, in the portico of the church, and was announced to the public by the sound of bells, and of every kind of musical instrument. The persons elected approached to the feet of the father, to receive the marks of their dignity, which, however, did not exempt them from a share of merited flagellation. Their greatest distinction was to wear an upper garment, whilst a shirt of cotton composed the only habiliment of the other Indians of both sexes. The festival of the parish, and that of the *curé*, were celebrated by public rejoicings, and by representations of subjects taken from the scriptures, which resembled the ancient pieces called *mysteries*.

The mode of cultivating and distributing the lands resembled, in some degree, that of the Incas of Peru. Particular portions were allotted for individuals for the purposes of religion, and for the service of the community. For the support of the aged, the infirm, and the orphan, a certain provision was instituted. The morals of the people became a principal object of attention, and means were adopted to influence them in a powerful degree, by

the sanctions of religion. The Indians were so completely subjected to the authority of their *curés*, that the men and women not only submitted to punishment for public offences, but voluntarily came before the magistrate to solicit chastisement for mental aberrations.

No part of their time was permitted to pass in indolence. Activity as well as industry were grafted on the functions of devotion. Warlike exercises, and games calculated to give action and strength to the body, were introduced. As the natives were instructed to be guided in their conduct by the dictates of conscience alone, few punishments were necessary. The government of the Jesuits possessed a powerful advantage, that of the practice of confession, which, if properly managed by ecclesiastics, may be converted to the highest utility of the state. Its application was directed by these fathers to influence morality, and to preclude the necessity of penal laws, and the multitude was restrained from evil, and promted to good, by the fear of censure or the prospect of reward.

The *curé* inhabited a house of considerable extent, near the church; in this were two separate apartments for public uses; one of which was allotted for masters and scholars in different branches of art: the other contained a number of young women, occupied in various works, under the inspection of matrons. The rooms destined for the *curé* had a communication with these two halls. At eight o'clock of the morning the people were distributed to different works, whether of agriculture or manufacture, and the corregidors superintended the employment of their time. The women were occupied in spinning cotton, a certain quantity of which was given to each every Monday, and was returned on the Saturday, made into yarn. The daily allowance for every family, which was supposed to consist of eight persons, was an ounce of *maté*, and four pounds of beef.

The moral conduct of the people, regulated by the influence of religion, rendered civil or criminal jurisdiction in a great degree unnecessary, and a species of theocracy thus became established among them.

THE CHIQUITEAUX.

The Chiquiteaux are endowed with a greater degree of bodily strength, and are more active, more laborious, more assiduous, and more temperate, than the Guaranis. The territory which they possess extends from the fourteenth to the twenty-first degree of south latitude, and is fertile, and varied in surface, by plains, and by mountains of considerable altitude. It is intersected on the west by three rivers, which unite and receive the

name of Madeira, mingling its waters, after a considerable extent of course, with the vast flood of the Amazons. This people, composed of several tribes, dispersed over that immense tract of country, were found to be so warlike and so brave, that the Spaniards attempted in vain to reduce them by open force. The persevering zeal of the Jesuits at length succeeded, in forming among them six communities, separated by immense forests. The inhabitants, after the example of the Guaranis, submitted, in 1746, to the dominion of Spain, and were allowed the same conditions. These two nations composed one extensive commonwealth, and a community of goods was established among them. The population of the Chiquiteaux amounted to upwards of forty thousand, and they cultivated tobacco, sugar, cotton, fruits, and a variety of esculent plants. Horses and cattle, as well as other European animals, have there abundantly multiplied.

Whilst the company of Jesuits was occupied in extending the missions, the unfavourable events which took place in Europe tended to reverse, in the New World, the labours of a number of years, and of uncommon industry, patience, and perseverance.

The court of Spain having adopted the resolution of expelling these fathers from every part of its dominions, was inclined that this operations of state policy should be carried into execution, at the same time, throughout the whole extent of its vast possessions, and their expulsion from the province of La Plata was effected in the following manner. To avoid the danger of alarm and insurrection, the governor wrote to the different missionaries, desiring that the corregidor, and a cacique of each village, might immediately be sent to him, that he might communicate to them certain instructions which he had received from the king. This circular order he dispatched with the greatest celerity, that the Indians might be on their way to the seat of government, and beyond the limits of the *Reductions*, before the intelligence of the intended expulsion of the Jesuits could there be known. Two purposes were by this means fulfilled. The one, of procuring hostages, which would in a great degree insure the fidelity of the villages when the Jesuits should be withdrawn; the other, of gaining the affection of the principal Indians, by the favourable treatment they would receive at Buenos-Ayres, and by procuring time to explain to them the new footing on which they should be placed, when they should enjoy the same privileges and property as the other subjects of the king.

The Jesuits, on being seized, testified the most perfect resignation, and humbled themselves under the hand which smote them. The fathers of Cordoue, amounting to more than a

hundred, of Buenos-Ayres, and of Monte Video, were embarked for Europe towards the end of September 1767. The rest, during this period, were on their way to Buenos-Ayres.

The greatest part of the members of the society in America, did not enter into the temporal views of their order. If, in this body, some individuals were disposed to intrigue, the greater number, sincerely religious, saw in the institution nothing inconsistent with the piety of its founder, and served, in spirit and in truth, the God to whom they were devoted.

The Marquis de Bucarelli entered the missions in 1768, and met with no obstacle, nor any resistance to the execution of the orders of the catholic king. The regulations established by the Jesuits, for the conduct and government of the Indians, have, since their expulsion, been changed; and the distribution of produce, and other articles, is principally vested in the commandant. The magistrates who were formerly selected by the curés, are now subordinate to military officers, appointed by the governor of the province; and the people, no longer under the direction of Indian chiefs, are subjected to a Spanish commandant and fiscal, to whom the curés themselves are made responsible.

The offices of priest and doctor, are, among the Indians, almost always vested in the same person. He carries with him a bag containing herbs and drugs, for the use of his patients; likewise his *penates* or *manitous*, and other articles, in which certain virtues are reputed to reside. Every word which these impostors utter, makes an impression on the minds of the people. They frequently withdraw from their society, and reside far remote from any habitation. They are difficult of access, and give themselves little concern for their food, which is generally provided for them. To them recourse is always had, whether respecting affairs of the community, or the state of human health. When any article of value is lost, or when rain is wanted, they are applied to by the people. Their supposed knowledge of nature, stamps them with the character of physicians, and with qualifications conceived necessary for the cure of maladies. In every occurrence of importance, it is found expedient to consult them, and they have a considerable influence in the decision concerning peace or war. The office of soothsayer is allied to that of priest, not only in practising deception, but in a participation of profit.

The same union of these functions prevailed in Asia and Africa, so strongly disposed are mankind to believe, that Heaven bestows in a peculiar manner, the healing art on those who are the depositaries of religious worship. The superstition of the

ancient Pagans, imputed to the gods the invention of medicine; and men who practised that science, were sometimes destined to swell the catalogue of their mythology. Like the natives of America, they made use of spells in their endeavours to restore health; and, by inculcating the persuasion of their procuring supernatural aid, they impressed with sentiments of awe and veneration, the multitude, who failed not to attribute to supernatural causes, effects for which they were unable to account.

ON THE MOTIVES OF THE SAVAGES FOR GOING TO WAR.

In no stage of his association, will the passions which actuate his mind, suffer man to remain long in a state of tranquillity. The most ferocious beasts of prey attempt not to destroy each other, nor does any one species of the animal creation counteract the progress of its multiplication. For man alone it is reserved to make war against his race, and to occupy himself either in active hostility, or in the exertion of his faculties to invent, and improve instruments of destruction.

Among civilized nations which have attained to an equal degree of improvement, war is carried on without any private animosity, or motives of individual vengeance, the moment a prisoner becomes captived, the enmity of his opponent is disarmed.

In the former ages of Europe, it was by the spirit of conquest that countries were discovered, and made known to each other. The productions, arts, and improvements, peculiar to each, were mutually borrowed and adopted; and warfare, in a great degree effected, what commerce and the extension of navigation have since enlarged and rendered more complete.

From the mode of conducting hostilities among civilized nations, countries whose resources are not easily exhausted, may contend against each other for a series of years, without the attainment of any very decided advantage on either side; and, if the nature of their governments be permanent, the prospect of lasting and uninterrupted tranquillity, may in some degree compensate for the calamities of war. In the savage state, the motives of vengeance are often pursued, to the inevitable dispersion, or extirpation of one of the hostile tribes.

Warfare is, doubtless, a misfortune arising from the cupidity of the human mind, and incident to the condition of man; and although numberless are the miseries which it occasions, there are yet advantages which flow from it. The most powerful energies of the soul are in that state excited, and most heroic actions are performed. It is in the animating calls to danger and hardship, that man is exhibited to advantage. It is when his faculties are

drawn forth, to the full stretch of their exertion, when he is busily engaged in the vehemence of combat, and exposed to indiscriminate peril.

In the recital of the deeds of the hero, the poet hath made his verse to glow with more impassioned warmth. On subjects like these, the painter hath displayed the noblest efforts of his genius and skill; and history hath unfolded to posterity, characters which, amid the toils of ambition, and the struggles of contending nations, have merited a lasting monument of fame.

Address in war and in the chace, and fortitude and perseverance in suffering hardship and pain, are the principal qualities of which savages can boast, and those only in which they place any estimation. To draw the bow, and to handle with dexterity the arms in use amongst them, forms a principal part in the education of their youth, and there is scarcely one who is not expert at these exercises.

The men who remain unoccupied in the villages, glory in their indolence, and consider themselves as fitted only for great enterprises, and for displaying to advantage the dignity of their nature, the unshaken firmness and heroic greatness of the mind.

The chace, which next to war engages their attention, is only agreeable to them, as recalling in some degree the image of that more noble enjoyment; and they would perhaps abandon even this occupation to the women, did it not present them with an exercise which accustoms their frame to fatigue, and enables them with greater facility to encounter the toils of warfare.

Besides the usual motives which urge them to hostility against troublesome neighbours, who give them just subject of complaint, war is also indispensable to them, as a fundamental principle in the rules of their association.

When by loss in former expeditions, or by natural death, the number of men in a family becomes diminished, the savages have recourse to warfare, in order to replace the deficiency, by prisoners to be afterwards adopted. The member of a tribe who wishes to commence a war, shews as a signal of engagement, a necklace, or string of wampum, to those persons whom he desires to enrol in his party, without disclosing the names of the deceased who are to be replaced.

The petty wars of the natives of America, are carried on either by small parties, or made in the name of the whole tribe. In the former case, the parties are not composed of more than seven or eight persons; but this number is frequently augmented by the inhabitants of other villages, or by allies who join them. That the whole tribe may not be involved in hostility, which might be productive of troublesome events, the warriors direct

their route into remote countries or territories. They will sometimes be absent many months, and will travel many hundred leagues to acquire a few prisoners, or to carry home a certain number of scalps. This contemptible mode of warfare can be called by no other appellation than that of assassination and robbery, as the invaders are known to these remote people only by the injuries and cruelties which they inflict, when they thus unexpectedly fall upon them to destroy, or to enslave them. Such actions are, however, considered by the savages as laudable, and attended with glory.

The wars which are entered into by neighbouring nations, originate, in general, from more justifiable causes; from mutual jealousies and disgust, and from advantages which they frequently take of each other, by intercepting, or killing those strangers whom they meet on their hunting-grounds, or who may be accidentally travelling across the country.

When a discovery is made of these acts of injustice, the nation which is in fault endeavours to extenuate the injury, and to deprecate the fury of the offended. They justify themselves by advancing the most plausible excuses, accompanied by presents, with a view to fortify the ties of mutual intelligence, which had been thus unhappily weakened. If the conjuncture is not entirely convenient, or favourable for the purpose of retaliation, the presents are accepted, but the injury is not forgotten. The application which has been made to the wound contributes not to close it. Whilst the enemy has not received all the chastisement which resentment inspires, it continues to bleed internally. The council retains an exact register of such persons as have been killed, in order to refresh the recollection, until circumstances present an opportunity of taking the most ample satisfaction.

The passions of savages, confined to few objects, become, when excited, lively and strong, and entirely occupy the mind. The death of the assassin can alone be an atonement for the murder of a countryman or relation. In every object which contributes to inspire melancholy, they conceive the beloved shades of their friends calling aloud for vengeance; their voices are heard in the hollow roar of the distant cataract, in the mournful screechings of the bird of night, in the sounding storm which agitates the summits of the forest—their evanescent forms are beheld in the flash of the lightning, or in the more spreading blaze of phosphoric exhalations. The remembrance of their departed friends is strengthened by these phenomena, and their incensed and afflicted bosoms are inspired with the ardour of revenge.

Previous to entering on a war, the motives for and against that measure are weighed and deliberated in their councils. When an equal division of opinions takes place, the hatchet is publicly raised, and solemnly carried to the nations in alliance.

Instances have occurred of savages having declared war in form, but these have been but rare. Little scrupulous respecting the justice of their cause, they are less so in the observance of formalities. Their only object is to overpower the enemy, and to endeavour to fall upon him by stratagem and surprise.

When they declare war in form, they send back to the tribe with whom they intend to enter on hostility, one or more prisoners, charged with an axe, the handle of which is painted red or black.

The Mexicans proclaimed war by the sound of a sacred trumpet, which none but the sacrificing priests were allowed to use, in order to animate, by the command of the gods, the hearts of the soldiers, and to consecrate as a religious motive, the contempt of life. Among the troops strict discipline was observed; the taking of a prisoner was esteemed a greater act of heroism than the slaughter of an enemy, and *he* was considered the most valiant who brought the greatest number of victims to be sacrificed.

The whole strength of the Iroquois nation exceeded not seven thousand combatants. They alone, however, alternately excited jealousies, or spread desolation and terror from the mouth of the Saint Lawrence, and the borders of the sea, even to the banks of Missisippi. This circumstance will not appear surprising to those who are acquainted with America, and with the barbarians who inhabit that part of the continent. Although there is an infinite number of nations, yet each of these is reduced to a small number of villages, and many tribes to one village only, which does not, perhaps, supply more than thirty warriors. They occupy immense tracts of gloomy forests, or of uncultivated meadows and swamps, and are so remote from each other, that they are frequntly obliged to travel a distance of three hundred leagues without meeting a human being. The length of a march is, for this reason, accounted nothing in these immeasurable solitudes, where a small body may travel a long way without fear, and where a journey of seven or eight hundred leagues, is thought as little difficult as to travel two or three hundred miles in Europe.

Small tribes, which being near to each other ought to lend mutual aid, have very little intercourse on account of their jealousies. They are not even on such terms as to afford assistance, in case of surprise, against a formidable enemy who may unex-

pectedly approach to the gates of their fort. They are on this account necessitated to form an alliance with nations very remote from them, in order to create a division, and to enfeeble the enemy by obliging him to separate his force.

It is from the double disadvantage of extent of territory, and and smallness of the numbers of which each nation is composed, that we must account for the long journeys and emigrations, and and alliances of distant nations, which without this previous explanation might not, perhaps appear intelligible.

The hatchet, the emblem of hostility, is no sooner raised, than the chiefs of war dispose themselves for assembling their people. Every one who is inclined to follow them raises a piece of wood ornamented and painted with vermilion, and marked with an emblematical figure. This he delivers to the chief, as a symbol representing his person, and as the link of his engagement.

That the savages, from their state of independence on each other, can break their engagements, and retire from an expedition as their own caprice or want of courage may dictate, is an idea not entirely founded on facts. Neither can an individual break a general contract, or commit, in violation of it, any act of hostility.

The song of war is raised in the cabin of council, where all assemble, and it is the chief of the nation who gives the festival. Dogs, whose flesh forms a principal part of the viands on this occasion, are used also for the sacrifice which they make to the god of war.

The warriors who attend this assembly are painted in the most frightful and fantastical manner, and dressed in their arms. The chief who elevates the hatchet has his face, shoulders, and breast, blackened with coal. Having sung for a certain time, he raises his voice, and signifies to all his assistants that he offers a sacrifice to the god of war, whom he thus addresses:

"I invoke thee, that thou wouldst be favourable to my enterprise, and have compassion upon me and my tribe. I likewise supplicate all the good and evil spirits, those who inhabit the air, who perambulate, and who penetrate the earth, to preserve me and those of my party, and to grant, that after a prosperous journey we may return to our own country." The whole of the assembly replies by *ho! ho!* and accompanies with these reiterated exclamations, all the vows which it forms, and all the prayers which it offers.

The chief raises the war song, and begins the dance, by striking with his club one of the vessels in the cabin; at different periods of the song all join in chorus by enouncing the

syllables *he, he.* Every person who elevates the signal of war, strikes the vessel in his turn, and dances in the same manner. This is a public manifestation of the engagement into which they had before entered.

Among the natives of Florida, the chief, before going to the field of battle, arranged all his people in warlike order, and having advanced to the side of a river, halted to perform a ceremony, with which the religion of these tribes does not permit them to dispense. He began by sitting down upon the ground, and all his attendants placed themselves around him in the same posture. He then demanded water to be brought him in a vase, and scarcely had he taken it into his hand, when he appeared to be seized with violent agitations, such as the poets describe in the Pythons and Sybils. His eyes rolled in his head in a terrific manner, and for half an hour he kept turning incessantly towards the sun, with a violence which it is impossible to describe. Having become less agitated, he sprinkled a portion of the water upon the head of each of his followers; then, seized with a sudden impulse of fury, he threw the remainder into a fire which had been kindled for the purpose, crying out with all the strength of his voice, *He Timagoa!* The whole army likewise repeated the same cry, and at this signal they arose, and began their march. The chief, during his state of enthusiasm, had not ceased to demand of the sun victory over his enemies, and from the fervor of his prayer arose that extraordinary state of emotion in which he appeared. In pouring water upon the heads of his vassals, he prayed that they might return with the scalps of their adversaries, and by throwing the remainder upon the fire was indicated the desire which he felt to shed the last drop of the blood of the Sachem against whom he was about to contend.

SINGULAR CEREMONY.

Among the Micmacs and Abinaquis, a singular ceremony took place previous to their going to war. On this occasion the chiefs fought with their wives, and if the husband was thrown down in the struggle, he doubted not of the success of his expedition; but if, on the contrary, the woman proved the weakest in the contest, an unfavourable omen was drawn from thence.

The warriors of many of the tribes religiously abstained from all intercourse with women for the space of three days and nights previous to their march, and likewise during the same time after their return. Among some of the tribes a custom totally different prevails; their concubines, or captive slaves, accompany

them on their expeditions, to banish from their mind the recollection of being far from their country. The same practice prevailed among the heroes of ancient Greece, whose female attendants on their campaigns, were likewise such as had been acquired in warfare. The Americans frequently drink the blood of their enemies. The ancients of the eastern hemisphere cut off the heads of their foes, carried them to the camp as trophies of victory, and afterwards exposed them on the gates or temples of the god of war. The *Boiens* adorned the sculls of their enemies with ornaments of gold and silver, and used them as vessels for containing wine at their entertainments. These vestiges of barbarism originated from certain ideas attached to valour, or rather from that sanguinary ferocity which is peculiar to uncivilized nations in every climate of the world.

On the day chosen for their departure, all the warriors, arrayed in their best attire, and armed in every point, assemble in the cabin of their chief, who is himself painted and accoutred in the most formidable manner. In the mean time the women, laden with their provisions, proceed before them, and await them at a certain distance from the village. On assembling the warriors, the chiefs deliver a short harangue, and advance in front, singing alone the death song in the name of all the others, who follow in silence and in files. In leaving the village, they fire a shot from a fusil, or let fly an arrow from a bow, and the chief continues the song during their march until the cabins become lost to the view.

The number of warriors who set out together on an expedition seldom exceeds fifty, that they may be the less subjected to fall into an ambuscade. If they can find a swamp or a piece of water, they usually post themselves in its vicinity, that they may be guarded from surprize on one side, and may direct their attention more closely to every occurrence. They separate themselves as far as they suppose their voices can be heard, and again rendezvous by certain signals, which often consist in mimicking birds or the sounds of animals. When they have ascertained that the enemy with whom they are to contend does not greatly exceed them in number, they post themselves in the form of a half moon, in the most advantageous position which they can find. Here they will remain for several hours, and the enemy probably runs into the snare, where he is surrounded and defeated.

When the warriors, on their return, arrive at the place where the women await them, they divest themselves of their warlike apparel and ornaments, and are cloathed in the habiliments of

peace, delivering to their wives, and other relations, these articles, which are no longer useful.

The natives of America generally travel by water, on account of the convenience afforded by the rivers and lakes, which so much intersect both the northern and southern parts of this continent, that there is scarcely a spot to be found where that element is not copiously distributed.

ON THE RIVERS IN AMERICA.

The rivers of the ancient hemisphere cannot maintain, in point of magnitude, a comparison with those on the western continent. In South America, the river of the Amazons, of the Madeira which flows into that flood, of La Plata, of Oronooque, may be classed as seas of fresh water, on account of their stupendous breadth, and the immense length of their course. In North America the country abounds with rivers and lakes of the most pellucid waters, some of which are of prodigious extent, and almost the whole discharge themselves by the Saint Lawrence, the most navigable river in the world. On ascending that river, and on arriving at the heights of land to the westward, where the different streams flow in a contrary direction, in their way to the Pacific Ocean, there are many fine rivers, which hold their course both to the north and south-west. Others running from the north-east and north-west unite with the Missisippi, which directing its course from north to south, seems to divide that part of the continent into two equal portions, receiving into its bosom from every quarter numerous streams, which pour through its channel, and continue to swell its waters until it mingles with the Mexican gulf.

This river runs through an extent of 19 degrees from north to south, or about 425 leagues; but, on adding its sinuosities to the direction of its course, which is not always under the same meridian, the least length which can be given to it, is 900 leagues. The Misouri, whose course is also of prodigious extent from the westward, rolls into the latter an immense body of water, totally changing the original colour of the Missisippi. It has by some travellers been doubted, whether the former does not absolutely contain a greater quantity of water than the latter, which seems to have usurped over it the denomination of *Great River*.

The manner in which the earth is separated by the diffusion of its waters, which tend to beautify and fertilize it, rendered navigation the most necessary, as well as early resource of the natives of the New World.

CANOES OF THE INDIANS.

The vessels in use among the savages for transporting themselves from one situation to another are canoes, composed of the bark of trees, or excavated from the solid timber, or constructed with boughs covered over with skins.

The Eskimaux, and some other of the northern nations, have preserved the model and figure of the canoes of hides, which are of two kinds; the first, for a single person, is of the length of from twelve to fifteen feet, covered every where with skins, having an opening in the centre of the upper part, into which a man, introducing his body, is half concealed when in the attitude of sitting. He draws around him, like a bag, the loose skin which is connected with the aperture, fixing it with a belt; and throws over his head and shoulders a leathern cloak, which covers every part but the face, so that the canoe and the man appear as one piece, and not a drop of water can enter. He uses, with promptitude and dexterity, a double paddle, so that the vessel seems to dart with great velocity through the water. A javelin, attached to the side of the canoe by a long cord, is the instrument with which the Eskimau spears the fish, which he devours in a raw state. Thus equipped, people of that tribe often make long voyages.

The other species of canoe is made in the same form as the latter, the inside being composed of ribs of wood well mortoised and secured together, and afterwards covered with skins. This is of considerable length, and capable of containing several persons. In calm weather the savages make use of paddles, and when the wind is favourable, they raise a mast, on which they spread sails of leather or bark.

The lightest, as well as most handsome canoes, are formed of the bark of birch trees, cut into oblong pieces, and neatly sewed together with twine made of the interior integuments. They are lined with flat ribs of tough wood closely placed together, having underneath long pieces of the same, which extend throughout the whole length of the canoe. The interior is thus protected from injury, but the outside is liable to be broken by touching stones, or parts of trees, which may happen to be entangled in the bed of the waters. The bottom is of a round form, and the vessel terminates in sharp edges. These canoes are constructed of various dimensions, and some are calculated to contain a considerable number of persons. They who work them, either sit down in the bottom, or place themselves on their knees; but when they encounter a stream they stand upright, in order to push the canoe forward by means of poles. In water whose course is not rapid, paddles are used for putting

them in motion. Their buoyancy and flatness retain them almost upon the surface, and they move onwards with wonderful swiftness.

If the canoe be worked by one person only, with a single paddle, he applies both his hands to it, and immerses it in the water on each side alternately. Should two or more persons be embarked, they work not abreast, but one before the other. Great caution is necessary, not to give the canoe a bias by any sudden movement, as it is easily overturned. Gum, pieces of bark, moss, and watape, or the inner filaments of trees, are usually carried in the canoe, that in case of accidents it may be readily repaired.

When a savage arrives at a rapid stream, which he conceives too hazardous or difficult to be ascended, he lays hold of his canoe by a small piece of wood fixed across the gunnels, throws it over his head and shoulders with the bottom uppermost, and thus transports it with considerable ease. In these slender conveyances convenient for their lightness, but unsafe on account of their fragility, long and difficult voyages are made by the coasts of rivers and lakes, during which the natives land, whenever they find it necessary, as they steer their course at no great distance from the shores.

On a part of the coast of North-west America, the inhabitants form their canoes of ropes made of rushes, or long grass. These are sometimes of the length of ten feet, and three or four in breadth. The ropes are woven so closely together, that in calm weather, they appear to resist the penetration of water; the nature, however, of the materials of which they are constructed, renders them ill calculated to be used any distance from shore, or to be launched when the sea is in the smallest degree agitated.

The Caraibs have two kinds of boats or canoes for travelling by water, both excavated from the solid trunk, one of which, pointed at each end, is nearly the same in shape as the birch canoe; the other is pointed at the head, with a square stern. These they ornament with paints of different colours. Neither of them has any rudder, and they are governed by a person using a paddle, who bends forwards, plunging it in the water, and drawing it backwards as he regains an erect position. He thus pushes the water violently behind him, and impels the vessel forward with considerable velocity. The Caraibs have usually in their canoes two masts, and two sails for each. The *bacassas*, or sterned canoes, have three masts. When the Caraibs embark on the sea for some warlike expedition, they only take one or two women in each vessel, to paint their persons, and to pre-

pare their repast. But when they make voyages of pleasure, or of traffic, they travel with their wives and children, and carry with them, besides their arms and hammocks, the whole of their utensils.

TRAVELLING IN THE FORESTS.

To convey to a person who has never been in the forests of America, some idea of the difficulties to be encountered, in travelling through those wild and uncultivated regions, we shall here introduce the description of a journey by land, and also of a voyage on the Missisippi, where, on account of its magnitude and breadth, perhaps fewer inconveniences occur than on many of the smaller rivers. The journeys which are made in this country, are somewhat more difficult and fatiguing than those which are performed in Europe. In most parts of that continent, are found at short distances from each other, inns, villages, hamlets and towns, convenient houses at which to rest, necessary refreshments, bridges, or ferries to pass the rivers, beaten roads which lead to every place, persons to point out the way to the traveller, should he go astray, regular carriages, horses, bateaux, or barges, with good accommodations. In the wilds of America none of these comforts are to be found. A march of twelve days may be performed without meeting a human being. The traveller is sometimes obliged to cross meadows, whose boundaries are lost to the eye, which are also intersected by currents and rivulets, without the smallest tract to guide him on his way. At other times he must open a passage across thick forests, in the midst of brambles full of thorns and prickles, and hold his course over marshes full of slime.

After the fatigues of the day, he must repose at night on the grass or on foilage, exposed in some situations to the winds, the rain, the dews, and all the injuries of an unwholesome atmosphere; happy if he finds himself near a rivulet, otherwise, whatever thirst he may experience, the night must be passed without its being quenched. A fire is kindled, and, if in journeying along, he have slain a wild animal of the forests, parts of it are roasted, and eaten with Indian corn, or meal, if fortunately any of that article remain. Besides these inconveniencies, common to all who proceed through those deserts, it often occurs that some travellers are obliged to undergo long intervals of inanition on the journey. Numbers of wild animals, such as deers, stags and buffaloes, are frequently to be seen; but unless a suitable provision of fire-arms, powder and ball is made, it is difficult to procure them by any other means, as the arrow is not sufficient to kill them immediately; for, although

pierced with several wounds, they will continue to fly, and will expire at a great distance, perhaps far beyond the reach of the hungry huntsman.

At certain seasons of the year, particularly in the spring, the river Missisippi rises to the height of thirty or forty feet, and overflows its banks and part of the adjacent country, which is in general extremely level. Travellers find it, at this period difficult to land in order to cook victuals, and to repose themselves. When they effect a landing, they sleep nearly in the following manner. If the earth be muddy on the surface, which happens when the waters begin to subside, they commence by making a bed of foilage, that their mattrasses or skins may not be sunk in the slime; the bedding is then deposited, and over this three or four canes are bent in the form of a parabola, the extremities of each of which are run into the ground; some slender pieces of cane being fixed across, a large sheet or cloth, whose extremities are folded under the mattrass, is extended over this little frame. Under this species of tomb, in which he is stifled with heat, must the wearied traveller repose. The first occupation, wherever he lands, is to form this hut with expedition, as the musquitoes will not allow him to bestow much time on it. If he could sleep in the open air, he might enjoy the coolness of the night; but this felicity is not permitted. He has much more reason to be dissatisfied, when he finds no place on which to raise his hut. The pirogue, or wooden canoe, is then fixed to a tree, and if a quantity of fallen timber, which has been carried down, and heaped together by the current, be found, the victuals are cooked in a kettle, by making a fire upon its surface. These masses of floating trees, collected at certain places of the river, by a stump whose root is in the ground, or by a point of land, and forming an enormous raft, were denominated by the French in America, *des embarras*. Their extent is often so prodigious, that they might supply to several thousand families, a quantity of fuel sufficient for twelve months consumption. These situations it is difficult and dangerous to pass. The rapidity of the current, at the outer extremity of the *embarras*, is usually considerable; and if the pirogue should accidentally encounter one of the extremities of the floating trees, it will inevitably be upset.

If no such situation be found in the course of the day's journey, the traveller must remain without supper, and also without sleep, as the night affords no respite or relief from the torment of the musquitoes. The height of the trees, and the luxuriant thickness of the woods, which throughout almost the whole extent of its course, cloath the level borders of this river, ex-

clude the refreshment of the smallest breath of air, notwithstanding its channel is above half a league, and often a league in breadth. The air is felt only in the center of the stream, when it becomes necessary to cross over to shorten the length of the journey. The hordes of musquitoes which hover over the travellers and their baggage, whilst the canoe is kept near the coasts of the river, continue even here to persecute them; and when again it happens to pass near the willows and canes, another cloud of these winged insects throws itself upon it, and never forsakes it. They who are not employed in rowing, exert themselves in endeavouring to ward off the baneful attacks of the flies, which after a small retreat, return to the charge, and the arm engaged in this office, becomes fatigued sooner than these tormentors. Here are likewise innumerable small flies, called *brulots*, whose puncture is so sensible, or rather so burning, that it seems as if a small spark of fire had fallen upon the place they have bitten. There is a smaller species of the same fly, called *moustiques*, scarcely visible, whose province it is to attack the eyes. Wasps, and every species of fly which the effects of heat and moisture can generate, likewise infest these regions. But the musquitoes swarm in greater abundance than any other, and their effects are more serious and annoying. On landing to cook the victuals, and to dine, which is generally from twelve to two or three o'clock, the travellers are attacked by innumerable armies of these insects. A large fire is made, which is kept under with green leaves to produce a greater quantity of smoke, but in order to avoid the intolerable persecution of the flies, the traveller is compelled to enter into the midst of it, and the remedy then becomes little better than the malady. The hours destined for repose are wasted in ineffectual struggles against the musquitoes, which enter the mouth, the nostrils, and the ears. Wherever the flesh is exposed to their bite, it swells immoderately; and, when it is possible totally to withdraw from their attacks, the effects will remain for several days. Such are the inconveniences attending a voyage on the Missisippi, and, indeed, through any of the unsettled parts of this continent.

When a savage has no canoe, and wishes to pass a deep or rapid river of no great breadth, he walks along its banks until he finds a tree that has fallen across it. The cataracts of the Andes, rolling from beneath the region of congellation, fall, by different directions, into vallies and chasms deeply excavated by the rapid currents; they are the barriers which the sports of the waters has placed between those stupendous masses, broken and piled aloft, in the awful struggles of nature, agitated by terrible convulsions.

The natives, when on their long voyages, are seldom deceived with respect to the distance they imagine themselves from the sea. If, in following the course of a large river, the stream holds a straight direction for a length of fifteen or twenty leagues, they conclude that they are far from the ocean; and, on the contrary, from the frequent curvatures in the channel, they determine that the sea is not very remote from them.

During winter, when the snow is generally three, and sometimes five feet deep in the forests of Canada, the savages travel upon snow shoes; and, for carrying their provisions and baggage, make use of small slays formed of two thin pieces of hard wood joined together, whose breadth exceeds not a foot or fifteen inches, and whose length is about six or seven feet. These boards are bent upwards in the front, to the height of six inches, to keep them clear of snow. Two spars of about two inches in width are attached to the upper edges, throughout the whole length, which serve in some degree to keep the baggage from rubbing against the snow, and also for securing it by means of thongs, at equal distances from each other. The savage, having fixed a band to this slay when loaded, drags it after him without difficulty. Dogs are not unfrequently used in forwarding this conveyance.

Warriors, during their route, travel by short journeys. A savage is never in haste, nor does any accident disconcert him, except when superstition induces him to draw an omen unpropitious to the success of his enterprise.

The natives move with little precaution through their own country, and through those places wherein they suspect not any danger. Whilst some conduct the canoes in summer, or drag the slays in winter, the rest of the party disperses into the woods, for the purpose of hunting. That they may not fall upon the same prey, each person pursues a different direction. In the evening they assemble without any difficulty, at the spot fixed on for rendezvous.

The knowledge which these people discover at a very early period of life of the different quarters, resembles in some degree the instinctive principle of animals. In the thickest forests, and during the most obscure weather, they never stray from their intended course. They travel to whatever situation they wish, through the most unfrequented country, perhaps before untrodden by human footsteps. In most places in the woods of North America, the surface of the earth is covered with rank vegetation, with shrubs, with brambles, or with tall plants, which impede the progress of the ordinary traveller, and tend to perplex, bewilder, and mislead. To the savage, these present no

impediments; he brushes, with his accustomed pace, through the twigs and entwining brambles, and attains with unerring certainty the object of his march. The bark of certain trees in the forests is cloathed with moss towards the north, as a defence against the wintry storms; many of them have a natural bend towards the south, in order to receive a greater portion of the sun's warmth, and the bark is thicker on the north than on the south side. These peculiarities in the nature of trees, tend in a great measure to guide the undeviating course of the savage.

When arrived at the intended place of rest, the savages very soon form their encampments. They upset their canoes to guard their bodies from the wind, or they fix small branches with leaves on the shore, and strew them on their mats. Some carry with them bark of the beech-tree rolled up, with which they quickly erect a kind of tent. The youngest of the party, when no women attending, light the fire, and are charged with the office of cooking, and other preparations of food.

The manner in which the Indians conduct their petty expeditions is, by endeavouring through stratagem to take advantage of the enemy, by falling upon them suddenly, when divided into hunting parties, when occupied in cultivating the fields, or when wrapped in profound sleep. The success in these predatory excursions depends on the secrecy of their march, and on using every means without being themselves exposed to view, to discover the detached parties of the tribe which they propose to attack.

The loss of a single warrior is, on account of the smallness of their numbers, sensibly felt, and is of so much consequence to the chief of a party, that his reputation is involved in it: skill as well as good fortune being esteemed the requisite qualifications of his character.

TREATMENT OF PRISONERS IN SOUTH AMERICA

The inhabitants of South America, practise towards their captives in war, equal barbarity with those of the North, although not accompanied by so many minute circumstances of torture. The custom of devouring the flesh of their prisoners is, among the former, more frequent than among the latter, although all are more or less contaminated by this propensity, so abhorr[illegible] nature and to humanity. The Brasilians treat, for a time, [illegible] captives with the greatest marks of kindness, allowing to each a young woman as a constant attendant and companion; but at the expiration of a certain period, they are put to death, [illegible] their flesh is devoured. The adoption of slaves, to supply [illegible] loss sustained in families by deaths, is essential to maintain

the strength of a savage nation. The person adopted, becomes in every respect a member of the tribe, to which he is habituated and naturalized by equality of treatment. The Iroquois, who by this system of policy have always supplied their losses, continued long to maintain their consequence, and to be formidable to the enemies by which their territories were environed.

ARMS OF THE SAVAGES.

The arms principally in use among the natives of America, consist of bows and arrows, spears, war clubs, and darts. Since their intercourse with Europeans, by far the greatest number of the tribes have adopted the fusil and the iron hatchet, whose use they discovered from experience, to be far more efficacious and destructive, than that of their own simple weapons.

The war-club of the North Americans is formed of a hard and tough wood, the handle being thin and flat, somewhat curved, with sharp edges, having at its extremity a ball of about three inches in diameter. With this, the blow upon the head is generally given, previous to the operation of scalping. The clubs used by the South Americans in combat, are of hard and heavy wood, sharp on the two sides, thick in the center, and terminating in points. To these offensive arms, some Indians, when they go to war, add a buckler of bark, to defend themselves from the arrows of the enemy.

The natives of North-west America, bordering on the sea coast, make use of cuirasses and shoulder pieces, composed of ribs of whalebone closely sewed between skins of animals, and parallel to each other. This vestment of war is of a flexible nature, and allows to the person who wears it, the unrestrained use of his arms. A coarse and large gorget, which protects the throat and face as far as the eyes, forms another part of their warlike apparel. The head is defended by a species of helmet, made of the scull and hide of some animal of prey. A species of apron, of the same fabric and materials as the cuirass, is worn from the waist downwards, and a fine skin adapted to the twofold purposes of ornament and warmth, reaches from the shoulders to the knees. Invested with this armour, they bid defiance to the arrows of assailants, but are less capable of moving with agility. The strings of their bows consist of thongs of leather. Their lances are twelve feet in length, and shod with iron. Their knives of the same metal, are upwards of two feet in length; their axes are of flint, or of a green stone, so hard,

that they cleave the most compact wood without injury to the edge.

The arms of the Caraibs are much the same as those already described. These people pass whole days in their hammocks, and their indolence and apathy are unequalled. The bows which they use are about six feet in length, the ends are rounded to an inch in diameter, with notches to stop the cord. The thickness gradually augments from each end towards the center, which is round on the outside, and flattened on the inner part, so that the middle of the bow is an inch and a half in diameter. It is generally fabricated of a green wood, or of a brown mixed with stripes of a reddish hue. It is heavy, compact, stiff, and of neat workmanship; the cord is of leather. The arrows are about three feet and a half in length; the extremities are bound with cotton thread to prevent them from splitting. The point is made of green wood, notched, and formed in such a manner, that it cannot be extracted from the flesh which it enters, but by considerably enlarging the wound, or by pushing the arrow in a forward direction, and causing it to come out at another part. The arrows are ornamented with feathers of various hues, split, and glued to the lower end. The points are impoisoned with the sap of the Manchineal tree, which grows upon the sea coast, the exudation of whose bark and foliage is of a nature so acrid, that drops of rain falling from thence upon the human skin, cause it to swell and blister in a painful manner. The arrows in use for killing birds, are rounded at the ends, so as not to enter the flesh, but only to stun or bruise.

The Caraibs ensnare the fish by a kind of wooden spear, with a cord attached to the lower end, with a piece of light wood to serve as a buoy. As soon as the fish is struck, it darts away, and the Caraib swimming after the piece of wood, lays hold of it and drags it on shore.

The war club is about three and a half feet in length, flat, two inches thick, except at the handle, where it diminishes, and four inches at the extremity, of a wood ponderous and hard. The broadest sides are engraven, and the hollows are filled with different colours. They use this instrument with no less strength than address, and every blow aimed with it, fails not to take effect, by breaking the bones of the body, or splitting the head asunder.

CHARACTER OF THE CARAIBS.

When these barbarians fight against each other, they make

with a knife two notches at the end of each arrow, that when it enters the body the point may break off and remain, and the arrow may fall to the ground. Although they generally carry their knives naked in their hands, it is rarely that they wound one another, except when intoxicated. In these moments they are dangerous; for they recal to remembrance an injury they may have received from any person present, and take immediate revenge. If the person against whom an individual entertained resentment is thus slain, and if none of his relations survive to revenge his death, the affair is concluded. But if he have relations, or if he have only been wounded, the aggressor must change his place of abode, or expect retaliation on the first opportunity. Strangers to reconciliation or forgiveness, no person among them ever undertakes the office of mediator between individuals hostile to each other.

The whole of the native tribes are extremely incautious with respect to their encampments at night, even in an enemy's territory. They place no sentries to guard them from surprise, and often fall a sacrifice to their indolence and false ideas of security. They alledge as an exemption from this fatigue, that they who have toiled all day ought to enjoy repose during the night.

The Iroquois appear to be the only people who are entitled to an exception in this respect. They place advanced guards, and scouts in their front; these are always in motion, and convey timely intelligence of the approach of an enemy. They are, therefore, almost never surprised or interrupted, during the period of their hunting expeditions.

The chief grounds of warfare among savages are usually derived from pursuing the chace over territories, whose boundaries are established, and which are considered as the property of particular tribes; each member of a tribe being perfectly well acquainted with the limits of his country.

If reproached by Europeans, on account of their ferocity, they will coldly reply, that human existence is as nothing, that they do not avenge themselves of their enemies, when they immediately deprive them of life, but by inflicting on them torments, protracted, acute, and severe; and that, if in warfare, death were the only object of dread, women might as freely engage in it as men.

At the age of twenty-one, a warrior usually commences his career, which he terminates at fifty. If he bear arms at an earlier, or a later period, it is only on predatory expeditions, which are not the regular occupations of a warrior.

When an invading party arrives within about forty leagues of the enemy, the chace is laid aside, and the warriors are satisfied with carrying, each a small bag of flour, or meal, made from Indian corn, of about twenty pounds weight, which they eat mixed with water, as they are cautious of lighting fires, lest they should be discovered by the smell, or by the smoke.

The Illinois, Outagamis, Hurons and Saulteurs, the Oumamis, the Outaouais, the Algonquins, the Abinaquis, and Micmacs, are the nations generally at war with the Iroquois, and they do not hesitate sometimes to advance in small parties of thirty or forty, even to the villages of the enemy, trusting, in case of detection, to their speed in running. They have the precaution to march in files, and the office of him who is the last in retreat, is carefully to sprinkle leaves over the footsteps of the party.

When arrived within the territory of the enemy, they travel all night, and pass the day in laying with the face towards the ground, among brushwood or brambles, either in company or dispersed. Towards evening, or as soon as the sun has gone down, they forsake their ambuscade, attacking, without distinction of age or sex, all whom they meet; their custom being, to spare neither women nor children. When they have compleated their massacre, and taken the scalps of the dead, they have the hardiness to put forth a mournful cry. Should they perceive at a distance any of the enemy, they give them to understand, that they have killed some of their people, naming the particular nations and persons by whom the deed was performed. They then betake themselves to flight, with all possible swiftness, in different directions, until they reach a certain rendezvous at the distance of many leagues.

The party to which a state of warfare becomes most burdensome, and which feels in a greater degree than its opponent, the evil effects resulting from it, omits no measure for endeavouring to quiet the tempest, and to restore tranquillity. It takes advantage of every opening for negotiation which presents itself, and when a prospect of success appears, ambassadors are sent to make propositions of peace. The victor, on his part, generally receives these overtures with avidity, because war, always onerous to those engaged in it, wastes the population and resources of his tribe; and, conceiving that he is in a condition to procure by negotiation considerable advantages, is not unfrequently the first to take secret measures for promoting the object of peace.

Ambassadors from neutral tribes are usually previously dispatched to smooth by presents the way for those of the hostile party, and when it is conceived they may with safety be sent, men of known capacity for that function are selected from among the ancients, who, after much deliberation in council, are instructed in the business of their mission. Their orders are recorded on collars of wampum, or on small pieces of wood of different figures, which are calculated to convey distinct meanings; that on the one hand nothing may be forgotten, and on the other, that the envoys exceed not the limits of their charge.

Having received their instructions, the ambassadors set out with presents to be offered, which are always taken from the public stock; and they are accompanied by a certain number of young men, to do honour to the character with which they are invested.

An ambassador among the Mexicans was distinguished by a mantle of cotton embroidered with gold, and ornamented with fringe. In his right hand he held a broad arrow with the feathers upwards, and in his left a shell in the shape of a buckler. The subject of the embassy was denoted by the colour of the feathers, red being a symbol of war, and white indicating peace. He was by these tokens entitled to respect, but was not permitted to turn out of the royal roads of the province through which he passed, but upon penalty of forfeiting his privileges and immunities.

Before their arrival at the village of the enemy, the ambassadors halt, and dispatch one or two young men to announce their approach; on which a party of old men is sent out to meet and to welcome them, by acquainting them that a cabin is provided for their reception, and that of their attendants. On reaching the village, they find in the cabin into which they are conducted, a kettle on the fire, and young men occupied in preparing food, of which none but the strangers are allowed to partake.

After one or two days of repose, the ambassadors disclose their propositions, and present their wampum belts in public council, which is convened not only for the purpose of hearing what they have to advance, but also for that of singing and festivity. They are, in the mean time, vigilant of their interests, and avail themselves of the period allotted for secret negotiation; the result of their mission will depend on their ability and address. After due deliberation on the propositions, the ambassadors are sent home with definitive answers, or are immediately followed by envoys from the other party, who reply by a

number of belts equal to that of the articles contained in the scheme of pacification.

Should the resolution of prolonging the term of warfare prevail among the council, the situation of the ambassadors becomes then perilous in the extreme; no respect is entertained for their character, unless when the event is undecided; neither a reliance on the faith of the tribe to which they are sent, nor the nature and quality of their mission, can be admitted as a plea for protection; as soon as the final resolution is adopted, the heads of the ambassadors are broken, even sometimes on their mats. But in order to avoid the appearance of such a flagrant violation of the rights of hospitality, and the bonds of confidence, they are more generally dismissed with outward marks of civility, and young men are dispatched to kill them at the distance of a few days journey from the village.

Among the natives who possess the tracts of territory in Louisiana, and along the borders of the Mississippi, the rights of countries are much more respected, than among the Iroquois, or the other savages of Canada.

The former, in their most important ceremonies and transactions, make use of a large pipe, called the calumet of peace. It is composed of a stone, either of a red, black, or whitish hue, polished like marble. The body of the calumet is eight inches, and the head which contains the tobacco is three inches long. The handle, which is of wood, and is four or five feet in length, is perforated in the centre, to afford a passage for the smoke. The embellishments with which it is adorned consist of the feathers and wings of various birds of beautiful plumage. It is considered as an appendage of state, and regarded as the calumet of the sun, to whom it is presented to be smoked, when calm weather, or rain, or sunshine, is required.

The calumet has the same influence among savages that a flag of truce has among civilized nations. They would conceive themselves highly criminal, and that they should draw misfortune on their nation, were they to violate the privileges which the presence of this venerable pipe is allowed to bestow. The red plumage which decks the calumet denotes assistance to be given. The white and grey mixed together, indicate peace and an offer of aid, not only to them whom the calumet is presented, but also to their allies.

Among some of the nations inhabiting the north-west of this continent, the ceremony of smoking is practised with much solemnity, previous to the discussion or execution of any transaction of importance. When any differences arising between

members of the same tribe are to be decided or accommodated by the chief, he announces his intention of smoking in the sacred stem, and no person who entertains enmity to any of the company assembled for this purpose can smoke from this pipe, as that ceremony is supposed to bury in oblivion all former causes of hatred. Although all the members of the tribe are supposed to be present, it is not absolutely necessary that each individual should assist, and many are exempted by asserting that they have not prepared themselves by purification. Contracts confirmed by this ceremony are fulfilled with the most scrupulous punctuality, and persons going a journey, and leaving the sacred stem as a pledge of their return, fail not if it be in their power, to perform the promise.

The nations on the borders of the Missisippi are scrupulous of bathing themselves on the commencement of the summer, or of eating new fruits, until they have performed the calumet dance, which among these people is celebrated only by the most considerable persons. It is sometimes practised for confirming peace, or for uniting themselves in war against the enemy. At other periods it is in use for public rejoicing.

Having made choice of a cleared spot, they surround it with small trees and branches, cut, and placed perpendicularly in the ground, to afford a shade for those who are to compose the band. A large mat is spread, on which is placed the god of the person who gives the dance. This deity is generally a serpent, a bird, or any other thing of which he may have dreamt. On the right of the manitou are placed the calmuet, with the trophies of warfare, the club, the hatchet, the bow, the quiver and arrows. The singers, consisting of both men and women, are seated under the foliage upon mats. The first part of the dance is performed by one person who throws himself in various attitudes, and exhibits gesticulations with the calumet in his hand. In the second part he invites some warrior to join in the dance; the latter approaches with his bow and arrows, and hatchet or club, and commences a duel against the other, who has no instrument of defence but the calumet. The one attacks, the other defends, the one aims a blow, the other parries it; the one flies, the other pursues; then he who flies wheels about, and in his turn puts his adversary to flight. All these movements are performed with set steps, and in cadence, accompanied by the sound of voices and drums, and in civilized countries might pass for the commencement of a ballet.

DANCING.

The dance, among the natives of America, is not considered

as a simple relaxation from the more essential duties of life, or as an amusing exercise. With them it is regarded as a ceremony of religion, and practised upon occasions the most serious and solemn. Without the intervention of the dance, no public or private transaction of moment can take effect. It seems to operate as a charm, in rousing the natives from their habitual indolence and torpidity, and in inspiring them with activity and animation.

These ceremonies vary in figure, according to circumstances, or the occasions on which they are in use, and differ considerably from each other. For the calumet, for the chiefs, for war, for marriage, and for public sacrifices, distinct dances are appropriated. That of the calumet is the most striking, and appears to be the most serious. It is danced only on particular occurrences, when strangers pass through the country, or when the enemy sends ambassadors to offer conditions of peace. If it be by land that either the one or the other approach the village the inhabitants depute one of their people, who advances, exclaiming that he carries the calumet of peace, whilst the strangers halt until they are invited to approach. Some of the young men then go out of the village, arrange themselves in an oval figure near the gate, and dancing whilst the staangers proceed, form a second oval, in the center of which they place the bearer of the calumet. This dance continues for more than half an hour, at the expiration of which the performers approach in ceremony, to receive the strangers, and to conduct them to the feast that has been prerared for the occasion. With regard to strangers who travel by water, the same formalities are observed, with this difference only, that a canoe with two or three persons in it, is dispatched to the extremity of the village, bearing the calumet of peace raised like a mast in the prow.

The war dance is performed by the whole company in turn, all but the actor being seated on the ground in a circular figure; he moves from right to left in the dance, singing at the same time his own exploits, and those of his ancestors. At the conclusion of the narration of each warlike feat, he gives a blow with a club, on a post planted in the center of the circle near to certain persons, who beat time on pieces of bark, or on a kettle covered with a dressed skin.

In this pantomimical display, he explains what he has witnessed in expeditions against the enemy, without omitting any of the circumstances. They who are present at this recital rise in a body, and join in the dance; and without any previous concert or preparation, exhibit these actions with as much vivacity as if they had actually assisted in them. They thus delineate with consi-

derable animation, and a multiplicity of gestures, any occurrence which they have witnessed, placing it in a certain degree before the eyes of the spectator: an art in which some of their orators have acquired an astonishing degree of perfection.

During the intervals of song, frequent distributions of tobacco, and of other articles, are made among the guests, and the whole ceremony generally concludes by an immediate partition and consumption of the remainder of the provisions in the cabin

When it is resolved to engage in any particular dance, a person is sent around the village, to give notice to each cabin or family, which deputes one or two of its members to be present. In the center of the place where the dance is to be held, a small scaffold is prepared, where a bench is placed for the singers. One holds a kind of drum, another a chichicouè, or the skeleton of a tortoise filled with pebbles. Whilst they sing, and make a noise with these instruments, they are joined by the spectators, who strike with sticks against pots and kettles, or dried pieces of bark which they hold before them. The dancers turn in a circuitous figure without joining hands, each making different gestures with his arms and legs, and, although, perhaps, none of the movements are similar, but whimsical, and according to caprice, yet the cadence is never violated. They follow the voices of the singers by the continued enunciation of *he he*, which is concluded by ageneral cry of approbation still more elevated.

The discovery dance is a natural representation of what passes in a war expedition, and the principal object of those engaged in it is to search for an opportunity of surprising their supposed enemies. It is practised by only two persons at a time, who represent the departure of the warriors, their march, and encampments. They go forth to descry the enemy, they make approaches in the most clandestine and concealed manner, stop as if to breathe then of a sudden blaze forth into anger as if they intended to destroy every one within their reach. The paroxysm of fury being somewhat exhausted, they seize on one of the company present as if he were a prisoner of war, and pretend to break his head and strip off his scalp. The principle actor then runs a short distance and then abruptly stops, when his passion seems to subside, and his intellects to resume their ordinary state of composure. This stage of the exehibition represents the retreat made at first with rapidity, and afterwards with more leisure. He expresses by different cries the various degrees of elevation to which his courage was raised during the campaign, and finishes with a recital of the valorous deeds which he achieved.

The music and dancers of the Americans, so irregular, so rude, so boisterous and terrific, afford no pleasure to a cultivated ear,

and appear to civilize persons barbarous and disgusting. They who have not been witnesses of these spectacles can form but a faint idea of them. In the impetuous violence of their songs and dances, neither art, melody, nor delicacy, can be traced. The natives, however, discover, according to their conceptions, sufficient charms in them, and derive from them the most lively entertainment. Their youth are more passionately fond of these than Europeans are of theatrical exhibitions.

In the earlier stages of society, and among every barbarous nation, dancing is alone exhibited as an imitative art. Among societies which have made considerable advances in civilization, it loses, in a great degree, this character, and degenerates into a set of uniform unmeaning movements.

The calumet is not only an emblem of peace or war, but it is likewise used in commerce, to insure safety on a journey. The commerce of savages consists only in the exchange of one necessary article for another of which they may be in want. The territory of one nation supplies some productions peculiar, perhaps, to itself, and of which another situation may be destitute; the object of their traffic is, therefore, to circulate and diffuse the overplus of their several commodities. These are principally maize or Indian corn, tobacco, porcelain, furs, dressed skins, mats, canoes, baskets, works composed of the hair of the original, or moose deer, of that of the buffalo, and of the stained quills of the porcupine, hammocks of cotton, mats of various kinds, household utensils, calumets, and all that their unimproved ingenuity hath suggested for mitigating the asperities of their mode of existence.

The festivals and dances which the savages celebrate in going to trade with distant nations, render their commercial intercourse agreeable and pleasant. Their traffic is commenced by presents, which are offered to the chief, or to the whole body of a tribe, by whom an equivalent is returned, and accepted without scrupulous investigation. This species of gift may be considered as a general tax levied on the merchandise. The exchange is then carried on between individuals, and from one cabin to another. The article to be disposed of is sent to one of the families, from whom something is brought back supposed to be of equal value. If the vender be dissatisfied, he enquires from whence the thing given in barter was brought, and withdraws his merchandise, provided he receives not the price he has affixed to it. The estimation in which the seller holds his property, and the degree of avidity on the part of the purchaser to possess it, are the only regulations of exchange.

A singular mode of commerce prevails among some of the Indians

of Chili who border on the mountains of the Andes, and is somewhat characteristic of the general practice of savages. When the Spanish traders arrive at a place, which they fix on as the mart of their commodities, they immediately address themselves to the chief of the village, by making presents to him, and to every member of his family; after which the chief publishes to his dispersed countrymen, by sound of a shell, the arrival of the merchants with whom they may trade. Having assembled, they examine the merchandise, consisting of stuffs, looking-glasses, knives, hatchets, combs, needles, buttons, buckles, silver ornaments, and a variety of other manufactures. When all has been carefully exhibited and inspected, and the rate of barter agreed on, every one carries to his home that which he wants without paying for it, so that the whole of the goods for sale are distributed without its being known to the merchant by whom they were taken, or his ascertaining any of his debtors. When he expresses his intention of departing, the chief, by a second sound of the shell, gives an order for payment, and each person returns to the appointed spot of rendezvous, faithfully carrying with him whatever value was affixed to the articles of his choice.

One savage nation pays to another, in passing through its territory on a commercial expedition, a certain tax for permission to proceed quietly. However disinterested the savage may appear, he is not really so, and can conduct his own affairs with sufficient cunning and address. As the property of Europeans is not always in safety whilst engaged in commercial intercourse with many of the savage tribes, who are frequently addicted to theft, so the savages, on the other hand, are liable to be over reached by those who are inclined to deceive them, or who flatter themselves with deceiving them, when a species of violence has been exercised towards them, to which opposition would be vain.

The Europeans who traded with the inhabitants of Louisiana, in imitation of those nations, availed themselves of the calumet, and participated in all the ceremonies which they practise in the reception of strangers, in obtaining liberty of passage through a country, in maintaining tranquillity of commerce, in lamenting the dead, and in strengthening the ties of alliance which they had contracted.

MODES OF RECKONING TIME.

The natives of America reckon the lapse of time by nights rather than by days, and divide it into lunar months. This mode is, however, corrected by the course of the sun, whence their years are regulated, and distributed into the four seasons, and into twelve months. The solar years are destined to mark the age of

man, which is denoted by the attainment of a certain number of natal days. The same turn of expression is in use respecting the sun, who is said so many times to have regained the point from whence he commences his course. The number of years to be specified is frequently marked by the name of one of the seasons, and a person is said, in reference to his age, to have survived so many winters. Those inhabitants of America who had attained to a considerable degree of refinement, regulated also their years by the progress of the sun. The Peruvians computed their years by the summer and winter solstices; and for this purpose, towers and pillars were erected in different parts of the city of Cusco, and of the empire; the space between two towers, through which the sun passed at his rising and setting, determined the exact period of the solstices. The Inca, in order to make this observation with accuracy, placed himself in a convenient situation, from whence he viewed with attention whether the sun rose and set between the two towers, which stood east and west. Some of the most intelligent amongst their *amantas*, or philosophers, made in another situation the same kind of observations, and from the result of these together, the time of the solstice was determined with a tolerable degree of accuracy. At the approach of the vernal equinox, the inhabitants of Cusco made great rejoicings particularly on a spot denominated *Colcampara*, or the garden of the Sun. One of their principal festivals was celebrated at the brumal equinox, which was ascertained by the shadows of certain pillars placed before the temple of that luminary. When the shadows projected by these columns reached to particular points, upon a line drawn from east to west, experience had taught them to determine the proximity or distance from the equinox. If when the sun attained his meridian there was no shadow from the pillar, the true equinox was concluded to be on that day.

The Peruvians reckoned as many days in the year as are admitted by Europeans, dividing them into twelve lunar months, each distinguished by a name, and the eleven remaining solar days were again subdivided.

The solar year of the Mexicans consisted of three hundred and sxity days, distributed into eighteen months of twenty days each. As, however, the course of the sun allowed them five supernumerary days, they considered these in the same light as that in which they were held by the Egyptians. They were prescribed as days of exemption from all laborious pursuits, and on which the priests made no oblations. They were occupied only in visiting and amusements. After this intercalation, the new year commenced with the spring. The Peruvians at first accounted their

year to begin from January, but afterwards in the month of December, when their calendar was reformed by one of the Incas.

The Mexicans, besides the arrangement already mentioned, divided the year according to the seasons, into four equal parts; these had each a distinct name, and a different symbol, by which it was denoted. Neither their months nor their weeks were regulated like ours; the latter consisted of thirteen days. They also joined together a period of years, similar to the number of the days in their weeks, four of which composed an age, or fifty-two years. The form of this secular calendar was represented by a wheel, or by a cross with four equal branches, the sun being painted in the center. Every branch or spoke had its distinct colour, and was divided into thirteen parts, to specify the number of years. On the outer rim the principal events which had occurred in each year, were delineated in hieroglyphics.

In order to transmit to posterity the event of the conquest of their country, they painted on this wheel a man in the Spanish costume, with a hat on his head. But as this could not give a detail of the various occurrences which took palce at that period, they supplied the defect by committing to memory, and retaining by frequent recital, several pieces of poetry or prose, composed by their learned men. These commentaries to the hieroglyphics were transmitted from father to son, and thus descended to posterity.

They had also a species of calico on which they delineated certain objects, in order to recal the recollection of memorable incidents, and to these delineations they added signs or numbers, so disposed as to assist in expressing a thought, or forming an argument. They had books drawn up in this manner, in which were preserved the memoirs of antiquity. The ceremonies of religion were also by this means recorded, and the books which concerned them were deposited in the temples.

As, like the Peruvians, they believed that the world should perish on the lapse of a certain number of ages, they extinguished, on the expiration of the last year of each secular period, the sacred fires in their temples, as well as those in their own houses; broke in pieces all the utensils which they had in use for food, as if they should no longer have occasion for nourishment, and seemed persuaded that the earth was about to fall into chaos, or to be finally dissolved. Impressed with this conviction, they passed the night in darkness, agitated between hope and fear. When they beheld the dawn of the morning announce the return of the sun, the air was every where heard to re-echo with acclamations of joy, swelled and extended by the sound of a variety of instruments of music. They kindled new fires in the temples, and in

their dwellings, a festival was celebrated by sacrifices and solemn processions, and they returned thanks to their God, who in his bounty had revisited them with his light, and had introduced them to the commencement of another age.

The Peruvians had a mode of registering, by means of quipos, or strings of cotton, the important events which took place in their government. These appear also to have been used for the purpose of facilitating and rendering more accurate and expeditious, the modes of calculation. The objects of enumeration were represented by the colours, and the numbers were specified by the knots, and by means of them they were capable of forming a great variety of combinations. The care of these instruments of record and account was committed to certain persons, called *Quipocamayus*, whose number was regulated by that of the inhabitants of the cities and provinces. These officers kept similar reckonings, and operated as checks upon each other. One person might have transacted the business of the whole; but it was thought necessary, for the prevention of fraud or collusion, to divide that office into several branches. By means of these *quipos*, the annual tribute payable to the Inca was computed, a register of the army, of those who were slain in battle, and of births and deaths, was retained. In applying them to the purpose of historical records, they were found extremely defective; and, to explain them, songs and poems were composed, which were recited on certain occasions, in order to diffuse a knowledge of them, and to refresh the recollection. They were thus transmitted from one generation to another.

When the Caraibs wish to remind themselves of some future transaction, in which they are to be engaged at a stated period, they take a certain number of peas, according to that of the days which are to elapse, and regularly every morning put one into a calibash, until the whole have been thus disposed of. They use also cords, similar to the *quipos* of the Peruvians, with which they aid the memory by tying a number of knots. They regulate their months by moons, and their years by harvests. They likewise compute them by the course of the pleiades.

The twenty-four hours are divided into sun-rise, mid-day, sun-set, and night. The year of many of the natives of North America is composed of twelve synodic months, with this distinction, that at the end of every thirty moons, they allow one supernumerary to pass, which they term the lost moon, and their reckoning is afterwards continued in the usual manner. They apply to every month a particular name. They know with

tolerable exactness the hour of the day or night, even when neither sun nor stars are discernible.

The number ten is, among the savages, a complete and perfect quantity. They reckon the units to the amount of ten, then the tens by units, to a hundred, and a hundred in like manner to a thousand.

MODE OF DESCRIBING DISTANCES.

Although totally unacquainted with the science of geography, the natives describe with considerable correctness the countries which they have often traversed. They mark the north by the polar star, and delineate after their own manner, the harbours, bays, and coasts of lakes, the rivers, roads, mountains, morasses, meadows, and estimate the distances by days and half days; each day being five leagues, when they travel by land. When travelling by water, they can form an estimate of the distance which they have passed over, by the motion with which they have impelled the canoe, if on a smooth surface. If they move down a stream of water, they judge of the distance by the rapidity with which they are carried along by its current. Their geographical charts are formed on the bark of birch-trees.

GAMES.

Besides their ordinary and necessary occupations, the savages have games of amusement and of exercise, which tend to strengthen and give play to the muscles of the body. One of their most celebrated games of hazard is conducted with nuts, or small ovals cut from bones, which are twice the size of cherry-stones, and nearly of the same form, the sides being somewhat flattened. Their number consists of six or eight, one half being painted black, and the other half of a yellow colour. They are put into a wooden bowl, which is kept in motion for some time, and then suddenly knocked against the ground, to cause the nuts to spring upwards. Sometimes the hand only is used, when the nuts are shaken like dice, and thrown upon a smooth skin, spread out for the occasion. If all the sides of the same colour are uppermost, or two of one, and two of another, the player gains; but if the number be unequal, he loses. Although the nuts are distinguished only by the marks on two sides, a number of combinations are yet expressed thereby, which tend to render the game protracted and agreeable. One half of a village sometimes plays against the other half, and even neighbouring villages assemble to take a part. They stake upon the issue of the game, furs, porcelain, and other articles of value, which become the prize of the conqueror. It is not unfrequent

to see dependent upon this game, goods to the amount of a thousand crowns. There are some of the natives, in whom the passion for gambling is so predominant, that they will not only lose every thing they possess, but will stake their freedom for a limited period; and, after having stripped themselves naked, and lost their cloathing in the severity of winter, will, with reluctance, withdraw from this scene of hazard. They will thus sacrifice every thing to the chance of fortune; and many prepare themselves for the game by a rigid fast.

The appearance of the savages, when engaged in this species of amusement, is eager and animated. Whilst the player is agitating the bowl or platter, they who wager on his side, cry with one voice, incessantly repeating the wish which they entertain for a particular colour and position of the nuts, whilst the adverse party exalt their voice on their part, and earnestly demand the reverse. They have another game of hazard, which requires considerable address. It is played with straws, or with small pieces of wood of unequal length, which, after being divided, are made to pass through their hands with admirable dexterity; an unequal number is always fortunate, but the number nine is superior to all others. The division of the sticks or straws, is calculated either for heightening or lowering the game, and bets are increased according to the number, until the conclusion. When villages play against each other, their attention becomes so powerfully attracted, that the game is prolonged for two or three days. Although every thing appears to be conducted with tranquillity, and with the shew of good faith, much chicanery, and many feats of address are notwithstanding practised. They are generally expert at slightness of hand, and seem to exert their skill in deceiving each other, and, at the same time, in avoiding detection.

They have four or five different games which they play with the ball, one of which is conducted by placing two marks at the distance of three or four hundred paces from each other, the players assembling in the middle space, or between the two boundaries. He who commences the game holds in his hand a large ball, nearly of the same consistence as that in use for cricket. He tosses it into the air in a perpendicular direction, in order to catch it when falling; all his associates in the play form a circle around him, holding their hands raised above their heads, to endeavour also to receive it in its fall. He who catches it, tries to reach one of the posts, whilst the efforts of the opposite party are directed to intercept his way, and to oblige him to part with the ball, whilst he uses all his swiftness and dexterity to elude them. If at length he become overpower-

ed, he throws the ball as far as he can behind him, that one of the last may seize it, in order to prolong the game. He who with the ball attains to either of the goals, is rewarded with whatever has been deposited as the prize.

A second game of this kind is that of the cross; the players separate themselves according to their numbers, and divide themselves as equally as possible into two bands. A line is then drawn through the middle of the ground, on which the ball is placed. Two other lines are likewise traced behind the parties, and two more distant lines, to serve them as boundaries. They who by lot are chosen the first, propel the ball towards the opposite party, who use all their efforts to send it back to the spot from whence it was advanced. The game thus continues in an alternate state of fluctuation, until one side or the other shall have pressed its opponents to retreat to the limits which it ought to defend, and which, if the ball passes, the game is lost.

A third exercise of this species is practised with a small ball by young women, three or four of whom form a party. The ball is an inflated bladder, which is always kept in the air, and is long retained in that situation by a multitude of hands, from which it is made incessantly to rebound.*

The use of raquets with balls composes a fourth amusement. The ball is made of a piece of scraped deer skin, moistened and stuffed hard with hair, and strongly sewed together with the sinews of the same animal. The ball is struck with the raquets, and thrown to a great distance, when the player is not interrupted by some of the opposite party. At each end of the goal, which is about five hundred yards in length, two long poles, three yards apart from each other below, but inclining outwards, are fixed in the ground. The party who throws the ball over these counts one; but if it pass underneath, it is returned, and played as before. The players are on each side equal in number. The ball is thrown perpendicularly into the air from the centre of the ground, and in a direct line between the two extremities; it is kept up for a considerable time, and flies to and fro from the raquets, without ever touching the earth, as it must not be caught in the hand.

The Californians are less favoured by nature, both with respect to mental endowment, and to figure and appearance, than almost any nation on the continent of America. They are small in stature, destitute of bodily strength, and of that love of independence which characterises the northern nations. Their whole leisure seems to be dedicated to two games. The first, which is called *takersia*, consists in throwing and rolling a small hoop of three inches in diameter, within a space of ten square

toises, cleared of grass, and surrounded with fascines. It is played by two persons, each holding a stick of the size of a common cane, five feet in length. Whilst the hoop is in rapid motion, they endeavour to catch it with the stick, and to raise it from the ground, by which two points are gained; stopping the hoop with the stick is equal to one point: three are the whole number of points allotted to this game.

To the other amusement the name of *toussi* is given. It is played by four persons, each having in his turn a piece of wood in his hand; his partner, in order to withdraw from the play the attention of the opponents, exhibits a variety of odd and whimsical contortions. It must be guessed in which hand the wood is concealed, and if the conjecture is realized one point is gained; but if the contrary, a point is lost. He who gains, conceals the piece of wood in his turn. The number of points is five, and the prize consists of beads, or the favours of particular women.

From the preceding elaborate account of the manners and customs of the various savage tribes, Mr. Heriot proceeds to describe the principal wild animals of America; and subjoins some particulars of the ways in which the savages hunt them. As we do not, however, find much novelty in this part of the volume, we shall pass to that in which he describes the various *maladies* of the Indians, and their method of cure: this portion of the work we cannot but consider particularly interesting. See page 521.

The condition of savage life exhibits, says our author, sometimes a state of indolence, at others, of excessive fatigue. His continual exposure to the influence of the weather, the frequent change of situation, the long voyages which he undertakes by means of the natural canals which fertilize and beautify the wilds through which he roams, the simple food with which he is nourished, exempt the Indian of America from many maladies which are the necessary offspring of a refined and artificial mode of existence.

Irregularity, not only with respect to his nourishment but to the exertions which he makes, and to the inactivity in which he indulges, seems to be a necessary evil incident to man in an uncivilized state. If his efforts in the chace have been unsuccessful, he is exposed to suffer from inanition, and should he have been so fortunate as to procure abundance, he gives a loose to his appetite, and devours an immoderate quantity of food. The fatigues which he encounters, and the little precaution which he uses, to guard his body from the vicissitudes of the weather, being sometimes exposed to scorching heat, at other periods to the most rigorous severity of cold, tend, in some de-

gree, to render his constitution vigorous and robust. There is scarcely to be found among any of the tribes a person that is deformed. They are strangers to the gout, the gravel, apoplexies, and sudden death; and they probably never would have known the small-pox and some other epidemical disorders, but for their commerce with Europeans.

Whatever exemption from many maladies known to civilized societies they may derive from their mode of life, the natives of North America are, nevertheless, subjected to several severe afflictions, among which are scrophulous complaints, caused by the crudity of snow-water, which they are frequently necessitated to use in the hunting countries, not only for drink, but for boiling their food. It is, perhaps, partly from the same cause, and from the exposure of their stomach and breast, that they contract a species of consumption to which they are unable to apply a remedy, and which undermining the constitution, cuts off many at an early period of life.

They who are so fortunate as to avoid these infirmities, and other evils to which they are subject, arrive at an advanced period of life.

In the earlier ages of mankind, the whole of the drugs in use for the healing art were, like those of the Indians of America, simple, uncompounded, and, in general, easily procured. Plants, whose salutary virtues became known, rather by long experience and acquaintance with their use, than by subtile reasonings, constituted the natural medicines by which health was frequently restored.

The savages seldom go beyond their cabins in search of medical practitioners, as they are usually acquainted with the effects of certain herbs with which their native forests supply them. They sometimes, however, employ certain men who have acquired reputation among them, particularly if they have succeeded in the cure of a malady similar to that which is intended to be removed.

But when a suspicion is entertained that the disorder originates from mental inquietude, by pining for the possession of an object which cannot be procured, or if the patient or his relatives be persuaded that the disease is the effect of sorcery, it is then that recourse is had to extraordinary remedies, and that the aid of the jugglers is called in. These men fail not, on such occasions, to exhibit their self-importance, and employ all the mummery of their art to detect, or to remove the pretended spell, which is otherwise supposed to occasion death to the person over whom it had been thrown.

The natural medicines of the savages would afford an exten-

sive and curious subject of enquiry. The southern and northern regions of America are, throughout their vast extent, replete with an infinite variety of plants of wonderful properties, among which are many powerful specifics for certain maladies, and by means of which extraordinary cures are performed.

The natives compound, as an application to wounds, a liquid partly balsamic, which sometimes is productive of notable effects. Of this composition there are three varieties; one is made of vulnerary plants, among which different classes are established according to the efficacy of their virtues. Another is made up from the roots of what they term vulnerary trees. A third is compounded from the bodies of divers animals, especially the hearts, which they dry and form into a powder or paste.

One of these appears not much impregnated with foreign matter, being only of a colour somewhat more yellow than common water. The effect of this prescription is intended to expel from the frame, not only the vicious humours which collect in a wound, and to remove splinters from bones, but also to facilitate the extraction of the heads of arrows. The commencement of the remedy is by drinking of this liquid, which also serves for the sustenance of the patient while he is in danger. The operator, after having examined the part affected, drinks also of the liquid, that his saliva may be impregnated therewith before he sucks or syringes the wound with his mouth. This office being performed, he covers and binds up the wound in such a manner that it may not receive any injury, conceiving that all extraneous substances which touch it, tend only to irritate and to retard a cure. The dressing is from time to time regularly removed, and the same process is repeated. This mode of treatment is generally so efficacious, that no fungous flesh is perceived; and if the patient observe a regular regimen, and do not subject himself to any indiscretion, he is soon restored to health. In the cure of ruptures, dislocations, and fractures, they are no less successful. Broken bones have been joined so completely, that the patient has in the course of a week been restored to the free use of the afflicted member. Their topical remedies are, in general, excellent, but the same observation cannot be extended to their other prescriptions.

The jugglers or quacks carry their pretended medical acquirements to a great height, and scrutinize the cause of the disease in the secret operations of the heart. They endeavour to develope the desires whose fulfilment is essential to the re-establishment of mental tranquillity.

If the patient be a person of consideration among his coun-

trymen, they fail not to sport with his repose, and to prescribe a remedy which sets the whole of the community in action. They will assert that the soul of the sick has directed its desire to the attainment of several different objects, some of which are, perhaps, of the most costly description; the others consist of recreations, dances, ballets, feasts, and other species of amusements.

The prescription having been made public, the chiefs of the village hold a council as if on an affair important to the interests of the association, and deliberate whether they should indulge the wishes of the sick person. Having come to a decision, they send a deputation to him to learn from himself the objects of his desire. He well knows how to act his part, replying with a feeble voice that his wishes are involuntary, and that they will urge him to his end if not satisfied by the attainment of the articles which he names.

The chiefs immediately employ themselves in furnishing to the sick the accomplishment of his wishes; and, calling a public assembly, they exhort every person to supply something for that end. Individuals upon these occasions pique themselves upon their generosity, and as the contribution is made at the sound of a shell, each is ambitious to be more liberal than another. If the patient recover, these presents become his property, but if he die, they remain with his relations. Thus, in the course of a day a person may become rich. After this ceremony a dance is proclaimed, which is practised in presence of the sick person for three or four successive days; at the conclusion his relatives give a feast to which all are invited. He fails not to affirm that he is now cured, although he may perhaps die very soon after the celebration of these ceremonies. But as it often happens that these disorders are only assumed, or are at the utmost but slight and transitory complaints, they become thus removed, and the quacks fail not to extract from thence an augmented source of profit and reputation.

The venereal malady, which Europeans carried from America to their own continent, the savages not only cure, but often defend themselves against its effects by means of drugs made from gayac and sassafras. For such persons as are attacked by this malady, cabins are prepared at a distance from other habitations. They are kept apart from the rest of their countrymen, as was the practice of the Jews towards those who were afflicted with the leprosy.

In pleurisies, and in maladies where pain is confined to a certain quarter, they endeavour to counteract it by repercussion, and apply the remedy in an opposite direction. In fevers, they

temper the heat of the blood by medicinal herbs of a cooling quality. Diet is with them a material part of the remedy, and their regimen consists only in abstinence from certain viands which they conceive to be hurtful to the disorder with which the patient is afflicted. Until their intercourse with Europeans they were unacquainted with bleeding, and the manner in which they now perform that operation shews they have but very little knowledge of its practice. They aukwardly scarify with sharp stones, or with bones of fish, that part of the body which is affected by pain; they then make use of empty gourds or calibashes filled with combustible matter and fire, which they apply to the wound.

Perspiration is among them an universal remedy of which they make frequent practice. It is equally in use for the sick and for the healthy, who thereby free themselves from the redundant humours which might have altered the state of their health, and produced infirmity. The sudatory or place for performing this operation is a small round cabin about seven feet high, capable of containing several persons.

Nature has bestowed on every country and climate specific remedies for the maladies to which its inhabitants are subject. The Indians generally carry with them an antidote for the bite of snakes, which they chew previous to applying it to the wound.

The Caraibs immerse the sick in cold water and afterwards compel them by flagellation, to run around a large fire, until out of breath and ready to fall down, when they are conveyed to their hammocks. The patients are restricted to abstinence in diet, and bleeding is sometimes employed. Should the recovery of a sick person be despaired of, he is carried to a distance from the dwellings, and suspended in a hammock between two trees. Provisions for three or four days are left with him, and he is abandoned to his destiny. If he return to his village, his restoration to health is celebrated with rejoicing, and if he die, his loss is lamented.

We have now given so full an Analysis of this excellent volume, that it would be superfluous to offer any opinion upon it; as every one of our readers must be competent to appreciate its value. We have no doubt that they will consider it as the most complete description of British America, which has ever been published; and also the most perfect and interesting history of the natives throughout the whole of that vast and important Continent.

THE END.

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